HISTORY OF GREAT EVENTS

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WILLIS'

HISTORICAL READER

BASED ON THE

GREAT EVENTS OF HISTORY,

FROM THE

CREATION OF MAN TILL THE PRESENT TIME.

BY

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PREFACE.

To give in a series of pictures such a connected view of the Christian Era as may be pleasantly readable and easily remembered, is the aim of this book.

Many pupils leave school—some students even leave college—with great gaps in their knowledge of History. There are thousands whose knowledge of Europe between the Fall of Rome and the Reformation is confined to a few misty, floating ideas about Charlemagne, the Crusades, and Rienzi. This is partly owing to the study of History in schools being confined, in many cases, to the beaten round of Britain, Greece, and Rome; and partly to the fact that most "Outlines of General History" take but a slight hold of the mind. Professing to give in complete detail the History of every land in the world, they are often, however valuable as books of reference, worse than useless for class purposes. When we, whose minds are ripe and strong, consider how little of Gibbon or Macaulay, we can remember beyond their very brilliant passages, we shall at once see the folly of expecting young and tender memories to retain more than the Great Events of History. What these Great Events are, the young need to be told, or else their after-reading will be confused and wearisome. It is the earnest hope of the writer, that this book may be numbered among the works which abridge the labor of the learner and sweeten his toil.

The Great Events of British History are not here described, being merely named in the Chronological Tables; because, in the opinion of the writer, this book should be read immediately after the study of our national story. It will then best gain its primary object, serving as a guide and preparation for the reading of special and more detailed histories.

Every chapter is headed by its Central Point of interest, upon which the memory may easily rest, and round which, without difficulty, the

minor events will group themselves in the mind. To this plan of teaching history by Central Points, the attention of those teachers who have not yet adopted it in their class-work is earnestly directed.

At the close of each Period, except the last, a supplementary chapter is devoted to the delineation of life and manners in some leading country or great age, occupying a conspicuous place in the history of the time. The writer is glad to know, on the testimony of eminent teachers, that similar chapters in his British History have proved to be among the most attractive, and certainly not the least useful, portions of that work.

The Geographical Appendix is intended for constant reference; for the more Geography and History are studied together, the more accurate and lasting will be the knowledge acquired in both fields. Every place mentioned in the course of the History is not given, since it was necessary to draw the line somewhere; and such names as are either well known to all, or too unimportant for special notice, have been omitted; else the Appendix would have rivalled the book in size.

W. F. C.

August, 1860.

PREFACE OF THE AMERICAN EDITION.

THE editor makes no apology for introducing a new school-book, or an old one in a new form. He has been moved to this work by no desire for fame, but by a conviction that the work was needed.

It is not intended to take the place of any book now in use; but to fill a place wholly unoccupied. For the account of nations cotemporary with the Hebrews, and the habits and employments of the Hebrews themselves, the editor is indebted to the excellent Bible History of Dr. Blaikie.

The events from the Creation of Man down to the opening of the Christian Era, the articles on the Settlement of America, the Indian wars, the war between Great Britain and her colonies in North America, the War of 1812, the American Rebellion, and the French and Prussian War, have been added by the American editor. The original plan of the book has not been disturbed.

WHITE PLAINS, *May*, 1872.

FEATURES

OF THE

GREAT EVENTS OF HISTORY,

TO WHICH THE ATTENTION OF TEACHERS IS DRAWN.

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1. The "Great Events of History," as we now present it, gives in a series of pictures a connected view of the entire historic period, from the Creation of Man to the present time.

2. It meets a want, which teachers generally feel, in providing a general history which is not so prolix as to weary and discourage the pupil; at the same time it is not so bald as to be uninteresting.

3. It is designed to introduce the subject to the pupil in a manner so pleasant as to obviate the usual objections to the study of history in schools.

4. One of the objects to be attained by the study of general history, is to create such a love for the subject as to induce the learner to read particular history. This the "Great Events" is eminently calculated to do.

5. For the purpose of fixing the facts in the mind of the learner, each chapter is headed by its central point of interest.

6. A new and very interesting feature is the description of the life and manners in leading countries. This feature, alone, is sufficient to make the book desirable.

7. It gives a brief account of the settlement of the New World, and the American wars, including the late Rebellion in the United States.

8. The causes of the seven weeks war between Austria and Prussia, by which Prussia gained the ascendency in Germany, are stated in a single short chapter.

9. The book closes with a brief history of the Franco-Prussian war, the last great event of the present century.

10. The appendix contains a concise geographical gazetteer of the most important places mentioned in the book, arranged under the heads of the countries in which they are found.

11. The American editor has aimed to produce a pleasant, interesting book, which may be used as a manual of history, or for a class reading-book.

The chapters are preceded by headings which give an analysis of the lesson, and may be turned into questions by the teacher to examine his class. And the chapters themselves, for the convenience of the learner, are divided into short paragraphs.

With this introduction, he places the book in the hands of his brethren, hoping they will give it a fair trial, and render an impartial judgment.

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THE GREAT EVENTS OF HISTORY.

FIRST PERIOD.

CHAPTER I.

CREATION AND FALL OF MAN.

Preparation of the earth for man—Creation of lower animals—Creation of Adam and Eve—Man's employment—Power of speech—Locality of the garden—Man's disobedience—Fall—Consequence of the Fall.

CREATION OF MAN.

The Creation of Man involved the necessity of preparing a dwelling-place for him.

The Bible informs us that the world passed through successive changes, which transformed an unshapely mass to its present condition of beauty and fitness. God said, "*Let there be Light,*" and the rays of the sun burst upon the surface of the earth.

Then the land appeared from under the waters, and was clothed with *vegetation.* The fishes, reptiles, and birds were called into existence. Next, quadrupeds appeared. Finally, as a crowning act, man was created in the image of God, his Maker. "Then the woman was formed from the rib of the man, in token of the closeness of their relation, and the duty of man to love his wife as his own flesh."

Man having been created, means were employed for his occupation. In order to develop his mind and body activity was necessary.

He was to dress and keep the garden, to subdue the lower animals, study them, and subject them to his control and use.

Distinguished from all other created beings around him by the gift of speech, he was enabled to classify and name the animals, hold converse with his wife, and engage in oral acts of praise and worship of his Heavenly Father.

The locality of the Garden of Eden is believed to be in the highlands of Asia Minor, near the sources of the Rivers Euphrates and Tigris.

The whole district drained by these rivers is represented by travellers as one of surpassing beauty. Mountains rise, by easy slopes, to the height of 5,000 feet; their sides are clothed with gigantic forest trees, underneath which the box, bay, and rhododendron flourish.

The valleys and lowlands are studded with villages, and checkered by orchards, *vineyards*, and gardens, yielding both the cereals of the temperate zones and the fruits of the tropics.

Somewhere in the eastern part of this charming district the garden was located, on the shore of Lake Van. This lake is described by travellers as follows:

"The shores of Lake Van (a noble sheet of water, 240 miles round) are singularly fine. They are bright with poplar, tamarisk, myrtles, and oleanders, whilst numerous verdant islands, scattered over its placid bosom, lend to it the enchantment of fairy land. In one direction the gardens cover a space seven or eight miles long, and four miles broad. The climate is temperate, and sky almost always bright and clear. To the southeast of the lake extends the plain of Solduz, presenting in one part an unbroken surface of groves, orchards, vineyards, gardens, and villages. The same description is applicable to the tract extending along the Araxes, which, for striking mountain scenery, interspersed with rich valleys, can scarcely be equalled. This district accords, in every respect, with the best notions we can form of the cradle of the human race."

Here, say the Armenians, was the Vale of Eden. On the summit of Mount Ararat, at no great distance from this, the ark rested; and here, also, the vine was first cultivated by Noah. It is impossible to say whether further investigation in this comparatively unknown district will ever guide us nearer to the spot where the Lord planted the garden; but there can be no doubt that these plains, lakes, and islands must have given birth to the images of Elysian fields and Fortunate islands that continued, age after age, to gild the traditions of the world.*

THE FALL.

The Fall of Man.—This expression signifies the loss of the innocence and perfection with which he was endowed at his creation.

The Fall was the consequence of disobedience.

Man, having been created and placed in the garden, was allowed to use the fruits of all the trees except one—The *Tree of Knowledge.* Of the fruit of this he was forbidden to eat.

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* For an account of Creation, see first and second chapters of Genesis.

But he was left to exercise his free will. Satan entered into a serpent, empowered it with the gift of speech, sought out Eve, and persuaded her to eat of the forbidden fruit. She, astonished at hearing the serpent speak, listened, and as he told her that the eating of the fruit would increase her knowledge, she finally consented, and after partaking of the fruit herself, took some to Adam, who also ate.

This act of disobedience entailed upon Adam's descendants a sinful nature, denominated by theologians, original sin.

For this act the heretofore happy pair were driven from the garden. The earth was cursed, and they doomed to labor, and endurance of pain.

From that time they, with all their descendants, were liable to death

Milton thus describes the momentous event:

> "Of man's disobedience, and the fruit
> Of that forbidden tree, whose mortal taste
> Brought death into the world, and all our woe."

Eve's act—

> ". . . her rash hand, in evil hour,
> Forth reaching to the fruit. She plucked, she eat.
> Earth felt the wound, and Nature, from her seat,
> Sighing through all her works, gave signs of woe,
> That all was lost."

Adam's Act—

> "Earth trembled from her entrails, as again
> In pangs, and Nature gave a second groan;
> Sky lowered, and muttering thunder, some sad drops
> Wept at completing of the mortal sin
> Original . . . . . ."

At what period of the existence of our first parents their Fall occurred the inspired writer does not inform us. The *fact* is only stated. There is reason to infer that it occurred soon after their creation.

Before the Fall they lived in the garden, whose enchanting beauty has already been described. Their employment was to dress, admire, and enjoy the lovely spot, and to praise and glorify their Maker.

Having disobeyed, they were driven forth from the garden, and the ground, which before brought forth, spontaneously, an abundant supply of fruits to satisfy all their desires, became changed, and needed cultivation to produce the food their desecrated bodies needed.

"Adam and Eve went forth into the wide world, carrying with them the fallen nature and corrupt tendencies which were the present fruit of their sin, but with faith in the promise of redemption."

The chief object of their life was yet to be accomplished, the earth was to be peopled and subdued. The curse was accompanied by a prom-

ise. The toils of the man were to be rewarded by the fruits the earth would yield to cultivation; and the woman, in her suffering, was consoled by the hope of a Redeemer.*

CHAPTER II.

DELUGE, AND CONFUSION OF TONGUES.

Cause of the flood—Describe the ark—Noah's age when he entered the ark—How many persons were saved—How long they were shut up in the ark—First acts on leaving the ark—Change of laws and privileges—God's promise not to destroy the world again by water—Babel, and its object—Where was the tower built—Confounding of tongues—Dispersion of mankind—Mode of government—Social life.

DELUGE.

The Deluge, or Flood, was an overflow of water upon the land, which covered the tops of the highest mountains, destroying all animal life.

This event is described in the seventh chapter of Genesis. The reason for sending the flood is stated in the previous chapter.

This remarkable occurrence took place about 1656 years after the creation of man.

Sin and wickedness had become so wonderful that God determined to destroy the whole race, except Noah and his family.

Noah was directed to construct a vessel sufficiently large to accommodate his family and such animals as he should need. In this vessel, called in the Bible the Ark, he embarked with his wife, three sons, and their wives, making in all eight souls.

He took, according to Divine direction, clean beasts and birds by sevens, and of such as were not to be used for food or for sacrifice by pairs, with a supply of food for all.

The age of Noah at the time he entered the ark was 600 years. When all had embarked, the ark was shut by the hand of God, and immediately the fountains of the great deep were broken up, and the clouds sent forth torrents of water, which increased and bore up the ark.

The Bible does not describe the terrific character of the consequences of such a storm. We are left to imagine the scenes that followed. The mountain streams must have swollen so suddenly as to forsake their channels and find new outlets, sweeping away, in their angry force, hamlets, villages, and even cities, washing down hills, and undermining mountains.

But, most prominent, there rises before the fancy a scene of terrible con-

* For an account of the Fall, see third chapter of Genesis.

flict—brawny men fighting with the tempest, carrying their families from height to height, but still pursued by the remorseless, unwearying foe.

The next scene is one of defeat and death.

Bleached and bloodless corpses float everywhere, like pieces of a wreck over the shoreless sea; the poor babe, locked in the arms of the mother, having found even nature's refuge fail.

Last of all, there is a scene of awful stillness and desolation, not one object being seen but the dull expanse of the ocean, nor one sound of life heard but the low moan of its surging waters.

On the seventh month the ark rested on the mountains of Ararat. But nearly a year elapsed, after the mighty vessel grounded, before Noah emerged from this temporary prison. Immediately upon landing he erected an altar, and offered sacrifice to God for preserving him from the watery grave which had engulfed all mankind except his family, with which act, God being well pleased, He made a covenant with him, never again to destroy the world by flood, and to seal the promise, He set His bow in the cloud.

Noah, as has been stated, on going out of the ark, celebrated his deliverance by a burnt offering of all the kinds of clean beasts which he had preserved in the ark with him.

The Lord accepted this sacrifice, and assured Noah that never again should the inhabitants of the world be destroyed by a deluge. The order of the seasons, and the produce of the earth, were secured by Divine promise to the end of the world's existence. Till that end man is to live under the dispensation of God's forbearance, and work out his full destiny.*

BABEL.

The next great event in man's history was the confusion of tongues, and the consequent dispersion of mankind into three great lingual families.

On leaving the ark new privileges were granted, new laws imposed, and a new covenant made. In addition to the plants, all animals were allowed for food. They were forbidden to eat blood, and murder was made a capital offense. "Whoso sheddeth man's blood, by man shall his blood be shed."

We may infer that the sons of Noah, and their descendants, moved naturally towards the south, until, after many years, they reached and settled the plains south of Ararat; until Assyria, the plains of Mesopotamia, and Chaldea swarmed with busy multitudes, pursuing the various avocations of life.

* For an account of the Flood, see the sixth, seventh, and eighth chapters of Genesis.

It was on the plains of Chaldea, south of Mesopotamia, that the mighty city of Babylon arose on the banks of the River Euphrates, where the inhabitants, in their pride, attempted to erect a tower that should reach to the heavens. This tower was, no doubt, intended to serve as a place from which to expose signals to call the people together, hence it was to be high enough to be seen from all parts of the plain.

To humble their pride, and to people other sections by distribution, God arrested the work by confounding of tongues, so that when the workmen asked for brick the laborers brought mortar. It is not certain to how great an extent the confusion of tongues was brought; but it is not believed that each person spoke a different dialect from every other. But, on the other hand, there is reason to believe that the whole was divided into three great lingual divisions or families.

One language had hitherto been spoken, supposed to be the Hebrew.

A celebrated scholar, Sir Wm. Jones, believes that all the languages now spoken in the world may be traced to three great foundations—the Arabic, Sanscrit, and the Sclavonic.

By this confusion of tongues concentration was prevented and emigration secured, two great means of preserving the purity of the people and colonization of other sections.

On the great plain south of Ararat, where this memorable event took place, there were several other large cities. Accad and Nineveh were among the most noted.

Men now grouped together, from necessity, into tribes or families, composed of those who understood each other, sought new regions and neighborhoods where they might settle, and engage in the various departments of human industry then practiced.

In that mild climate and generous soil men were greatly tempted to become shepherds and herdsmen, a mode of life at once simple and healthful, and one highly calculated to extend the borders of occupation, and increase the population.

The government was patriarchal—a mode of government which seemed to have been especially acceptable to God, and well calculated to prevent centralization.

CITIES AND EMPIRES—BABEL, NINEVEH, EGYPT.

After the confusion of tongues, the plain where the tower had been built continued to enjoy pre-eminence in the history of the world. One of its earliest distinctions arose from its connection with Nimrod, the first man, according to the Eastern writers, that wore a crown. Nimrod, whose energy and exploits as a hunter helped him to the royal dignity, began to reign at Babel, on the Euphrates—the original, it is thought, of

the celebrated Babylon, afterwards the capital of the Chaldean Empire. The name Babel, signifying "confusion," commemorated the great event that had signalized its neighborhood. Nimrod himself was a descendant of Ham, whereas the plain was the property of the Shemites: it is therefore probable that Nimrod was an invader and conqueror, who subjugated the original inhabitants.*

Several other cities were built by Nimrod in the plain of the Euphrates and Tigris, of some of which the ruins still remain. Near one of them (Accad, now Akkerhoof) there is a remarkable mound, surmounted by a sort of pyramid, which is called by the Arabs Tel Nimrood, or "the Hill of Nimrod." The ruins of other cities which have lately been explored by Mr. Loftus and others are very extensive. Warka, believed to be the Erech of the Bible, presents an enormous accumulation of mounds and ancient relics; and as far as three miles beyond its walls, ruined buildings, mounds, and pottery abound.

Another town that contributed thus early to the fame of the Mesopotamian plain, was Nineveh. It was situated on the banks of the Tigris, about 300 miles to the north of Babel. It was founded by Asshur, who seems to have been pushed out of the Babel district by Nimrod. Nineveh became the rival of Babylon, and the capital of the Assyrian Empire. It is impossible to form any definite conception of the appearance or state of these towns at this early period.

It must have been at a very short time after the dispersion that Mizraim and his company, directing their march southwards, reached at last the banks of the Nile, and laid the foundations of the great Empire of Egypt. No reliance is to be placed on some of the accounts of their antiquity put forth by the ancient Egyptians; for these place the origin of that empire centuries before the beginning of our era! But it is beyond all doubt that Egypt was not only a very ancient kingdom, but that it possessed a very ancient and very wonderful civilization. It is supposed by some that Mizraim was the same as Menes, the first who reigned over Egypt. But others think that the country was for a long time under the government of priests, before Menes was chosen king. According to Sir Gardner Wilkinson (one of the highest authorities in Egyptian matters), Menes flourished between two and three thousand years before the Christian era. It is pretty certain that before the call of Abraham, the massive forms of some of the largest pyramids were already to be seen in the plain of El Gizeh. Already the walls of many tombs and temples

* Sir H. Rawlinson thinks he has discovered a reference to this invasion in the records lately found at Mugeyer, which bear the names of a series of kings from Urukh (B.C. 2230) to Nabonidus (B.C. 540).

were covered with those inscriptions which the scholars of the nineteenth century are laboring to explain. It almost seemed as if they, single-handed, by their wonderful pyramids, were succeeding in the project which the united resources of the world had failed to accomplish at Shinar.

SOCIAL LIFE OF THE ANCIENTS—JOB.

It would be utterly impossible, in any single picture, to present a view of the state of society during a period of so great extent, and embracing such a variety of nations and countries. We can but follow the example of the Bible itself, and make choice of a single spot, and a single family, to convey some idea of the life and manners of the age. It is probable that it was during this period that the patriarch Job lived, suffered, and triumphed. Job was probably a descendant of Shem; his residence is said to have been "in the east" (Job i. 3)—the term usually applied to the district where the first settlement of men took place. (Gen. ii. 8; iii. 24; xi. 2.) The Sabeans and Chaldeans were his neighbors; and at the time when he lived the knowledge of the True God seems to have been preserved, without material corruption. The adoration of the heavenly bodies had begun to be practiced (Job xxxi. 26, 27), but there seems still to have been a general belief in one Almighty God.

The picture of social life in the book of Job is in many respects extremely beautiful. We dare not regard it as a sample of what was usual over the world, but rather as exhibiting the highest condition of social life that had been attained. There were even then cases of oppression, robbery, and murder; but, for the most part, a fine patriarchal purity and simplicity prevailed. The rich and the poor met together, and to the distressed and helpless the rich man's heart and hand were ever open: "When I went out to the gate through the city, when I prepared my seat in the street, the young men saw me, and hid themselves: and the aged arose and stood up. . . . When the ear heard me, then it blessed me; and when the eye saw me, it gave witness to me: because I delivered the poor that cried, and the fatherless, and him that had none to help him. The blessing of him that was ready to perish came upon me, and I caused the widow's heart to sing for joy." The sweet bonds of family affection retained all their power in the household of Job; his children feasted by turns in each other's houses; while the affectionate and pious father rose early in the morning to offer sacrifices for them all, lest any of them should have sinned. The simple burnt-offering retained its place as the appointed ordinance of heaven, and was the sacrifice that Job, as the high-priest of his house, presented on behalf of his children.

In the book of Job mention is made of kings, princes, nobles, judges,

merchants, warriors, travellers, and slaves. The pen of iron had begun to engrave inscriptions upon rocks; the mining shaft was sunk for gold and silver; and palaces that had been built for kings and nobles had fallen into ruin. Astronomy had begun to acquaint men with the heavenly bodies, and many of the stars and constellations had received well-known names. Altogether, the state of civilization was highly advanced. The more closely we study those early times, the more erroneous appears the opinion that man began his career as a savage, and gradually worked his way up to refinement and civilization. The reverse of this is nearer the truth. "God made man upright"—civilized and refined, as well as intelligent and holy; but as man departed from God, he lost these early blessings. Sometimes a considerable degree of refinement has been reached by other paths; but by far the richest and best civilization is that which has come with true religion—with the pure knowledge and simple worship of the one True God.

NOTE.—For a description of the Tower of Babel, see Genesis, eleventh chapter.

CHAPTER III.

CALL OF ABRAHAM, AND ACCOUNT OF JOSEPH.

Abraham's birth—Age of Abraham when the Lord spoke to him—Promise to Abraham—The wanderings of Abraham—First battle—Age of Abraham at the birth of Isaac—Isaac's marriage—Birth of Esau and Jacob—Jacob buys the birthright and receives the blessing—Jacob flees to his uncle in Mesopotamia—Serves his uncle fourteen years for his two daughters—Continues to reside with Laban after his marriage, and prospers—Sets out with his wives and flocks to return to his native country—Jacob's partiality for Joseph, the son of his younger wife—Consequences of the partiality—Joseph sold into Egypt—His elevation in Egypt—The famine—Joseph's brothers go to Egypt to buy food—Joseph makes himself known to them—Jacob and his family move into Egypt—Kindly received by the king—He settles with his family in Goshen.

CALL OF ABRAHAM.

THE next most important event chronicled in the Mosaic history of man is the call of Abraham, ten generations after Noah. Abram was born 1996 B.C. Ur, a Chaldean city, was his birthplace. Terah, Abram's father, removed from Ur to Haran, in Mesopotamia.

The Lord spake to Abram while residing in Haran, when he was seventy-five years old, and commanded him to leave his father's house, to separate himself from his kindred, to depart from his country, and to go to a land that should be shown him.

The Lord said to him, "I will make thee a great nation, and will bless thee, and make thy name great, and thou shalt be a blessing. And I will

bless them that bless thee, and curse him that curseth thee. And in thee shall all the families of the earth be blessed."

Abram, in obedience to this command, set out with his wife Sarai, and his nephew Lot, taking with him his flocks and herds, and journeyed into the land of Canaan. Having arrived, his first act was to erect an altar, and sacrifice to the Lord.

From this place he moved to the east of Bethel, and again built an altar and worshipped.

A famine drove him from his new home into Egypt, where was an abundance of food. Having spent some time in the land of the Pharaohs, he returned to Canaan, greatly enriched by his sojourn in Egypt.

Soon after the return from Egypt Lot separated himself from Abram, and settled in the valley of the Jordan, while Abram sought the hill country, and finally sat down in the neighborhood of the ancient city of Hebron.

The king of Chaldea made a raid on the cities of Canaan, and carried off Lot, with other prisoners.

This fact coming to the knowledge of Abram, he immediately set out to rescue his relation. Having over three hundred servants, he attacked the camp of the invaders at night, set them to flight, and rescued his nephew.

This is the first battle recorded in history.

When Abram was one hundred years old the Lord's promise was renewed to him. His name was changed to Abraham, the name of his wife to Sarah; and Isaac, through whom the promise of a great progeny was to be fulfilled, was born.

When Isaac was forty years old, Abraham sent his servant to Mesopotamia to obtain a wife for him. His second cousin, the granddaughter of his father's brother, was selected, and she consented to go back with the servant, and marry her kinsman. From this marriage two sons were born, Esau and Jacob. By the right of birth Esau possessed certain advantages, which Jacob purchased of him by dressing him some food when returning faint and hungry from the chase, thereby supplanting him. He afterwards, by deceiving his father, who was nearly blind, obtained from him the parental blessing conferred only upon the first-born. This so enraged his brother, that Jacob sought safety in flight, and went to his mother's brother in Mesopotamia.

There he was kindly received, and after a short time had elapsed he entered into the service of his uncle, and agreed to labor for him seven years for his youngest daughter. Having fulfilled his part of the contract, Laban, his uncle, gave him his *eldest* daughter. When Jacob discovered the deception his father-in-law had practiced upon him, he demanded Rachel. Laban, however, required him to serve another seven years,

which he did. After the second marriage he continued still to live with Laban, and received as pay a share of his flocks.

In securing this share, he was thought by his brothers-in-law to have practiced unfair means, hence they became hostile to him.

His father-in-law also having become unfriendly, he fled, and returned to his native land with his family and his flocks.

Laban pursued and overtook him, and though their meeting was far from being friendly, they entered into an agreement, and gave pledges that they would not annoy each other in future. Jacob then pursued his journey. As he approached his native country he sent presents to his brother Esau, who came out to meet him, and they became reconciled.

Jacob journeyed on to Canaan, and sat down in the city Shalim. Soon after he removed to Hebron, the home of his childhood.

He was rich in flocks and herds, and his neighbors respected and feared him. In accordance with the patriarchal mode of life, his twelve sons and one daughter remained with him, who, with their wives, children, and servants, made a large family or tribe.

NOTE.—For a history of Abraham, see Genesis, from the eleventh to the twenty-seventh chapters.

JOSEPH.

Jacob treated the children of Rachel, his beloved wife with greater tenderness than he did those of Leah, his first wife, and Joseph was his favorite. The partiality shown to this son so enraged his brothers that they determined to get rid of him. They found an opportunity to carry out their design under the following circumstances. The older brothers having been absent with their flocks so long that their father became anxious about their safety, and sent Joseph to search for them. As they beheld him afar off they plotted to murder him ; but, taking the advice of Reuben, they imprisoned him in a pit in the wilderness. Soon after his confinement a caravan of travelling merchants passed, and to these they sold Joseph into slavery, telling their father that he had been destroyed by wild beasts.

The merchants carried him into Egypt, and disposed of him to Potiphar, the commander of the king's guards.

In Potiphar's house he rose to great eminence as a servant ; but falling into disgrace through a false accusation, he was thrown into prison. While in prison his conduct was so exemplary and submissive, that he gained the favor of the jailor, and was allowed the freedom of the prison.

The king's baker and butler had also fallen into disgrace, and were incarcerated in the same place. They both, on the same night, had remark-

able dreams, which Joseph interpreted, predicting that one of them should be executed, and the other restored to favor.

Some time after, Pharaoh himself had a dream, which troubled him very much. His chief butler, remembering the interpretation of his own dream by the Hebrew slave, his fellow-prisoner, named Joseph to the king, who sent for him without delay. Appearing before the great monarch, Joseph disclaimed all power in himself to explain the meaning of what had appeared to the mind of the king, but modestly and reverently said the Lord of his fathers would show the signification.

The king having told his dreams, Joseph predicted seven years of great plenty, to be succeeded by seven years of dearth, and advised Pharaoh to build vast granaries and fill them, during the years of abundance.

The advice was immediately acted upon, and Joseph was elevated to the rank of governor of all Egypt, and the erection of storehouses, and the filling of them with grain, was entrusted to him.

The years of plenty came and passed away, and were succeeded by tedious years of sore famine. While the Egyptians had stores of food laid up by the providence and foresight of Joseph, the neighboring nations, having exhausted their stock of provisions, were obliged to go to Egypt to buy. The dearth oppressing the inhabitants of Canaan, Joseph's brothers came down to purchase also. While on a second visit to buy food they were made aware that their despised and hated brother, whom they had sold into slavery, was the governor of Egypt.

Having made himself known to them, they were overwhelmed with surprise and fear; but he most magnanimously pardoned and comforted them by saying, "Be not grieved or angry with yourselves that ye sold me hither, for God did send me before you to preserve life." (Genesis xlv. 5, 7.) "God sent me before you to preserve you a posterity in the earth, and to save yourselves for a great deliverance."

Joseph's father and all his family were at once brought into Egypt, and established with their flocks and herds on the eastern bank of the lower Nile, where Joseph nourished them, and where they prospered for many generations, until a new king arose, who knew not Joseph.

CHAPTER IV.

EXODUS OF THE DESCENDANTS OF JACOB FROM EGYPT, AND THEIR SOCIAL LIFE AND HABITS.

Prosperity and increase of the Israelites—The Egyptians fear the Hebrews—Oppression of Israelites—They set out from Egypt—Their journeyings in the wilderness of Arabia—Their final entry into the promised land—Stationary character of the Hebrews for a long period—Their ignorance of the arts—Their employments—Size of the farms they cultivated—Seasons of the year—Trees and plants cultivated for fruit and food—Wealth—Sins—Literature and learning—Domestic animals—Change in dwellings—Effect of the introduction of wealth and luxury—Book of Proverbs—Soothsaying—Advancement in literature—David and Solomon—Religions—Tendency to idolatry—Wealth and luxury after Solomon's reign—Feasts—Personal pride and display.

THE EXODUS.

THE part of Egypt in which Joseph had settled his family was one of the most fertile parts of the Valley of the Nile. Skirted on the south by hills, it sloped off to the northwest towards the Mediterranean Sea, thus affording the most favorable exposure for the purpose of the pastoral life which the Israelites led.

For more than a century they pursued their quiet employment, and were treated by the Egyptians with respect and consideration, in memory of Prince Joseph.

The prosperity and increase of the Israelites, with their distinctness as a people, alarmed the Egyptian powers, who turned their attention to some means to cripple them and arrest their increase.

Oppression was resorted to. Privileges were withheld, and severer tasks imposed, until one tremendous groan went up from the land of Goshen to the God of their fathers. In spite of all the oppression and injustice practiced upon this people, they throve and increased in numbers.

The Lord heard the cry of the outraged Hebrew slave, and permitted his enemies to afflict him, that he might find the country hateful, and feel that he was only a sojourner, who was to seek a promised land, the land promised to his father, Abraham.

Their burdens became intolerable. Moses, their leader, applied to Pharaoh to allow them to depart from the country; but the king refused, and God afflicted the Egyptians with dreadful plagues, until they prayed the Israelites to depart.

They set out with all their effects, moving towards Arabia, and on reaching the shore of the Red Sea they became aware of the fact that Pharaoh, with his army, was pursuing.

Hemmed in on either side by hills, the sea before them, and their enemies behind, they were overwhelmed with despair. But now the God of Abraham, of Isaac, and of Jacob, their fathers, delivered them with a great deliverance, for, at His command, the sea opened and allowed them to pass over in safety. Pharaoh, pursuing, led his chariots and horsemen into the bed of the sea, and the returning waters engulfed them. All were destroyed, not *one* escaped: a terrific exhibition of the wrath of the Almighty.

The Israelites journeyed on towards Canaan, the land of promise, spending forty years in the deserts of Arabia, living in tents, subsisting on manna, which they found on the ground in the morning, and on the flesh of birds, which came to them every evening, making their whole journey a series of miracles and special providences. They finally reached the Jordan, which, like the Red Sea, opened for them, and allowed them to pass over dry-shod.

The inhabitants of the land were driven out, and the weary wanderers, who had crossed and recrossed their path in the rocky wilds and desert sands of Arabia, sat down in the land of their fathers, and became dwellers in permanent habitations.

SOCIAL LIFE AND HABITS OF THE HEBREWS.

On account of the wonderful deliverance of this remarkable people, the special care which God took of them, and the fact that a Saviour was to be born among them, we are led to follow them into the promised land, and to inquire what were their modes of life, their habits of culture, and their advances in civilization.

PROGRESS OF THE ISRAELITES AFTER REACHING THE LAND OF PROMISE.

Between the time of the entry of the Israelites into Canaan and the birth of our Saviour a period of 1,451 years elapsed. It is not our object to follow out the history of this wonderful nation, yet it would seem necessary to state briefly their progress.

For several centuries they remained much in the same state as Joshua, their great captain, left them; contending with the surrounding tribes whenever their encroachments were disputed, at other times living friendly with them; not only intermarrying, but allowing themselves to be seduced into idolatry; for which sin the Lord permitted the neighboring nations, in more than one instance, to conquer them, to break up their government, and carry the principal inhabitants into bondage. In each case, however, after long and weary years of captivity, their country was re-

stored to them, and the spoilers themselves were made instruments in the hands of God to reconstruct the nation.

SOCIAL AND RELIGIOUS CONDITION.

During the forty years of wandering in the wilderness very little opportunity was afforded for the exercise of the arts of life. It is difficult to conjecture the employment of that vast multitude during all those years.

The construction of the tabernacle and its furniture called into use the skill and workmanship of the best artisans; but, aside from that, there was nothing to tax their talent. During the forty years they lost the arts they had learned in Egypt.

For many years after they entered the Holy Land their mode of living was rude and simple, depending mainly upon the produce of their flocks and herds for sustenance. We have reason to infer that they also drew upon the same source for many articles of clothing.

The forty years of pilgrimage in the wilderness swept into the grave nearly all the vast multitude that left Egypt with Moses. Those who entered the Holy Land had not witnessed the idolatry of Egypt. Moreover, their very existence had depended upon the fall of the manna. Witnessing this daily miracle, a spirit of dependence and submission must have engrafted itself upon this new generation.

The dreary chastisement of the forty years, the plagues that once and again made such havoc, the sad fact that the bones of their fathers were left to whiten in the wilderness, must have produced a terrible impression. The people who came out from Egypt were haughty, unbelieving, and rebellious. Their descendants, humbled by chastisement, made dependent by their helplessness, became gentle, submissive, and obedient. We must hence infer that they remained for many years simple in habits and devotional in spirit.

For three hundred and thirty-two years after the death of Joshua, the successor of Moses, the Israelites were governed by judges. During this period the Jews were a nation of farmers, and each farmer was the proprietor of his own farm. The size of the farm allotted to each family may at first have averaged from twenty to fifty acres; and as there were very few servants or laborers, except such hewers of wood and drawers of water as the Gibeonites, each family had to cultivate its own estate. The houses were seldom built apart from each other, like the farm-houses of our own country—that would have been too insecure: they were placed together in villages, towns, and cities; and when the place was very much exposed, and of great importance, it was surrounded by a wall.

The lands were adapted chiefly for three kinds of produce—grain, fruit, and pasture. Wheat, millet, barley, and beans were the principal kinds

of grain; flax and cotton were also cultivated, and small garden herbs, such as anise, cummin, mint, and rue. (Matt. xxiii. 23.)

The orchards were exceedingly productive. The olive, fig, pomegranate, vine, almond, and apple were all common; and a great part of the time of the Hebrews, in days of peace, must have been spent in cultivating these fruit-trees.

As beasts of burden, they had the ox, the camel, and the ass; while sheep and goats constituted the staple of their flocks.

Their grain harvest began about the beginning of our April, and lasted for about two months. Summer followed, in June and July, and was the season for gathering the garden fruits. The next two months were still warmer, so that the sheep-shearing would have to be overtaken before they set in. During all this time little or no rain falls in Palestine. The country becomes excessively parched, the brooks and springs dry up, and almost the only supply of water is from the pools and reservoirs that have been filled in winter.

October and November are the seed time. "The former rain" falls now. It often falls with violence, fills the dry torrent-beds, and illustrates our Saviour's figure of the rains descending, and the floods coming and beating upon the houses. (Matt. vii. 25, 27.) December and January are the winter months, when frost and snow are not uncommon; February and March are also cold. "The latter rains" fall at this season. About the end of it, "the winter is past, the rain is over and gone; the flowers appear on the earth; the time of the singing of birds is come, and the voice of the turtle is heard in the land; the fig-tree putteth forth her green figs, and the vines with the tender grapes give a good smell." (Song of Sol. ii. 11–13.)

Among the wild trees and vegetable products of the country were the cedar, stable and lofty, an emblem of usefulness and beauty (Ps. xcii. 12); the oak, both the smooth and the prickly sort, which grew in great luxuriance in Bashan; the terebinth, or turpentine-tree (translated *oak* in our Bibles), a large evergreen, with spreading branches, often growing singly, and so striking as to mark a district—like the terebinth of Shechem, of Mamre (or Hebron), and of Ophrah; the fir, the cypress, the pine, the myrtle, and the mulberry. The oleander and the prickly pear flourished in most situations. The rose and the lily were the common flowers. Altogether, the number of vegetable products was large and varied; and, in such a country, Solomon's memory and acquirements could not have been contemptible, when "he spake of trees, from the cedar that is in Lebanon unto the hyssop that springeth out of the wall."

The ordinary employments of the Hebrew farmer were thus ample and varied, but not very toilsome; and often they were pleasantly interrupted.

Thrice a year the males went up to Shiloh, to the three great festivals—Passover, Pentecost, and Tabernacles. Each seventh day was a holy Sabbath to the Lord, devoted to rest and worship. At each new moon there was also a holy-day. Each seventh year was a year of rest, at least from the ordinary occupations of the field and the garden: it was probably turned to account in repairing houses, clothes, and implements, and particularly in the religious instruction of the people. The education of the children was chiefly in the hands of their parents, assisted by the Levites, who were scattered over the country, and paid from the tithes of the whole produce. On the whole, the Hebrews, in times of peace, led, during this period, a quiet, unambitious, country life.

Occasionally, as in the song of Deborah, we meet with proofs that music, and song, and literary culture were not neglected; and the "divers colors of needlework on both sides," for which the mother of Sisera waited so anxiously at her window, showed that the Hebrew ladies had acquired no mean skill in the use of their needles. But, on the whole, neither learning, nor the mechanical arts, nor manufactures, nor commerce, nor the fine arts, were very vigorously cultivated, or made much progress during this period. Each man was content to sit under his vine and under his fig-tree; and the children of a family were usually quite pleased to divide the possessions, and follow the occupations of their fathers.

The government of the country was carried on chiefly by local officers. It is not easy to ascertain the precise number and nature of the departments of the government, or of the officers by whom they were carried on. But each of the twelve tribes seems to have had a government of its own. Each city had its elders, and each tribe its rulers and princes. In ordinary cases, justice seems to have been administered and local disputes settled by the tribal authorities. There seem also to have been certain central tribunals. In particular, there was "the whole congregation of Israel"—a sort of house of commons, or states-general, composed of delegates from the whole nation, by whom matters of vital importance to the whole country were considered.

In ordinary times, the high priest seems to have exercised considerable political influence over the nation; and in pressing dangers, the judges were invested with extraordinary powers. The whole of the twelve tribes were welded together, and had great unity of feeling and action imparted to them, through the yearly gatherings at the great religious festivals. When idolatry prevailed in any district of the country, these gatherings would be neglected, and the unity of the nation consequently impaired.

No important addition was made during this period to the religious knowledge of the people. There was no new revelation of the Messiah, except in so far as the several deliverers who were raised up foreshadowed

the Great Deliverer. The ceremonial law of Moses was probably in full operation during the periods of religious faithfulness. The great lesson regarding sin—its hatefulness in God's eyes, and the certainty of its punishment—was continually renewed by the events of providence.

Those who really felt the evil of sin would see in the sacrifices that were constantly offered up a proof that God cannot accept the sinner unless his sin be atoned for through the shedding of blood. But even pious men had not very clear ideas of the way of acceptance with God. A humble sense of their own unworthiness, the spirit of trust in God's undeserved mercy for pardon, and a steady, prayerful endeavor to do all that was right in God's sight, were the great elements of true piety in those days. There was great occasion for the exercise of high trust in God, both in believing that prosperity would always follow the doing of His will, and in daring great achievements, like those of Barak and Gideon, under the firm conviction that He would crown them with success.

But in a religious point of view this period was a very checkered one; sometimes one state of things prevailed, sometimes another. The people showed a constant inclination to forsake the pure worship of the true God, and fall into the idolatry of their neighbors. The oppressions which those very neighbors inflicted on them, and the wars which ensued, generally produced an antipathy to their religious and other customs, which lasted for some years; but the old fondness for idolatry returned again and again.

It clearly appears that a pure, spiritual worship is distasteful to the natural heart. Men unconverted do not relish coming into heart-to-heart contact with the unseen God; they are much more partial to a worship conducted through images and symbols: for this reason the Israelites were always falling into idolatry; idolatry led to immorality; and both drew down on them the judgments of their offended God.

SOCIAL AND RELIGIOUS LIFE OF THE ISRAELITES UNDER THE KINGDOM. DURING THE REIGNS OF SAUL, DAVID, AND SOLOMON.

During this period the state of *social life* among the Jewish people underwent a very great change. An immense flow of wealth into the country took place. Through intercourse with other countries, many new habits and fashions were introduced. The people lost not a little of their early simplicity of character and life. A splendid court had been set up, and a splendid capital built. Commercial relations had been established with remote parts of the world. A great stride had been taken in the direction of luxury and refinement.

There was now a standing army, a large staff of civil officers, and a vast

number of menial servants in the country. Besides the ass, the horse and the mule were now introduced as beasts of burden; chariots and splendid equipages were set up; and many persons assumed the style and bearing of princes. Private dwellings underwent a corresponding change, and all the luxuries of Egypt and Nineveh became familiar to the Hebrews.

But was all this for good? It appears as if the nation, or its leaders, now struck out a new path for themselves, in which God rather followed than preceded them, giving them, indeed, at first, a large measure of prosperity, but leaving them more to their own ways and to the fruits of these ways than before. This, at least, was plainly the case under Solomon. The vast wealth circulated in his time over the country did not bring any proportional addition, either to the material comfort, or to the moral beauty, or to the spiritual riches of the nation. There can be no doubt that "haste to be rich" brought all the evils and sins which always flow from it in an age of progress towards worldly show and magnificence.

It appears from the Proverbs that many new vices were introduced. Many of the counsels of that book would have been quite inapplicable to a simple, patriarchal, agricultural people; but they were eminently adapted to a people surrounded by the snares of wealth and the temptations of commerce, and very liable to forget or despise the good old ways and counsels of their fathers. The Proverbs will be read with far greater interest, if it be borne in mind that this change had just taken place among the Hebrews, and that, as Solomon had been instrumental in giving the nation its wealth, so, perhaps, he was led by the Spirit to write this book, and that of Ecclesiastes, to guard against the fatal abuse of his own gift.

The practice of soothsaying, or fortune-telling, was common among the Jews at the beginning of this period. The prevalence of such a practice indicates a low standard of intellectual attainment. It seems to have had its head-quarters among the Philistines (Isa. ii. 6); and very probably, when Saul drove all who practised it from the land, he did so more from enmity to the Philistines than from dislike to the practice itself. It continued, as Saul himself knew, to lurk in the country, even after all the royal efforts to exterminate it. (1 Sam. xxviii. 7.) Probably it never altogether died out. In New Testament times it was evidently a flourishing trade. (Acts viii. 9; xiii. 6.) All over the East it was practised to a large extent, and the Jewish sorcerers had the reputation of being the most skillful of any. It was the counterfeit of that wonderful privilege of knowing God's mind and will, which the Jew enjoyed through the Urim and Thummim of the high-priest. Those who would not seek, or could not obtain, the genuine coin, resorted to the counterfeit.

In *literary and scientific culture* the nation made a great advance during this period. In a merely literary point of view, the Psalms of David and

the writings of Solomon possess extraordinary merits; and we cannot doubt that two literary kings, whose reigns embraced eighty years, or nearly three generations, would exercise a very great influence, and have their example very largely followed among their people. David's talents as a musician, and the extraordinary pains he took to improve the musical services of the sanctuary, must have greatly stimulated the cultivation of that delightful art.

What David did for music, Solomon did for natural history. It need not surprise us that all the uninspired literary compositions of that period have perished. If Homer flourished (according to the account of Herodotus) 884 years before Christ, Solomon must have been a century in his tomb before the "Iliad" was written. And if it be considered what difficulty there was in preserving the "Iliad," and how uncertain it is whether we have it as Homer wrote it, it cannot be surprising that all the Hebrew poems and writings of this period have been lost, except such as were contained in the inspired canon of Scripture.

There were, also, great *religious* changes during this period of the history. Evidently, under Samuel, a great revival of true religion took place; and the schools of the prophets which he established seem to have been attended with a marked blessing from Heaven. Under David the change was confirmed. In the first place, the coming Messiah was more clearly revealed. It was expressly announced to David, as has been already remarked, that the great Deliverer was to be a member of his race. David, too, as a type of Christ, conveyed a more full and clear idea of the person and character of Christ than any typical person that had gone before him.

It is interesting to inquire how far a religious spirit pervaded the people at large. The question cannot receive a very satisfactory answer. It is plain that even in David's time the mass of the people were not truly godly. The success of Absalom's movement is a proof of this. Had there been a large number of really godly persons in the tribe of Judah, they would not only not have joined the insurrection, but their influence would have had a great effect in hindering its success. The real state of matters seems to have been, that both in good times and in bad there were some persons, more or less numerous, of earnest piety and spiritual feeling, who worshipped God in spirit, not only because it was their duty, but also because it was their delight; while the mass of the people either worshipped idols, or worshipped God according to the will, example, or command of their rulers.

But the constant tendency was to idolatry; and the intercourse with foreign nations which Solomon maintained, as well as his own example, greatly increased the tendency. Under Solomon, indeed, idolatry struck

its roots so deep, that all the zeal of the reforming kings that followed him failed to eradicate them. It was not till the seventy years' captivity of Babylon that the soil of Palestine was thoroughly purged of the roots of that noxious weed.

SOCIAL AND DOMESTIC MANNERS DURING THE PERIOD WHICH ELAPSED BETWEEN THE CLOSE OF THE REIGN OF SOLOMON AND THE CAPTIVITY, INCLUDING A PERIOD OF ABOUT SIX HUNDRED YEARS.

During six hundred years that constituted the kingdom of Israel from the close of Solomon's reign to the total captivity, the same spirit of luxury and taste for display prevailed.

In regard to wealth and property, the moderation and equality of earlier days were now widely departed from. Isaiah denounces those who "join house to house, and lay field to field, that they may be placed alone in the midst of the earth." Notwithstanding, some men, like Naboth, stood up bravely for their paternal rights; and even in Jeremiah's time, the old practice of redeeming possessions survived. (xxxii. 7.) Many of the people lived in elegant houses "of hewn stone" (Amos v. 11), which they adorned with the greatest care. There were winter-houses, summer-houses, and houses of ivory. (iii. 15.) Jeremiah describes the houses as "ceiled with cedar and painted with vermilion" (xxii. 14); and Amos speaks of the "beds of ivory" and luxurious "couches" on which the inmates "stretched themselves." (vi. 4.)

Sumptuous and protracted feasts were given in these houses. Lambs out of the flock and calves from the stall had now become ordinary fare. (vi. 4.) At feasts, the person was anointed with "chief ointments;" wine was drunk from bowls; sometimes the drinking was continued from early morning, to the sound of the harp, the viol, the tabret, and the pipe. (Isa. v. 11, 12.) The dress, especially of the ladies, was often most luxurious and highly ornamented. Isaiah has given us an elaborate picture of the ornaments of the fine ladies of Jerusalem. He foretells a day when "the Lord would take away the bravery of the ankle-bands, and the caps of network, and the crescents; the pendants, and the bracelets, and the veils; the turbans, and the ankle-chains, and the girdles, and the smelling-bottles, and the amulets; the signet-rings, and the nose-jewels; the holiday dresses and the mantles, and the robes, and the purses; the mirrors, and the tunics, and the head-dresses, and the large veils." (Isa. iii. 18–23. —*Alexander's Translation.*)

A plain, unaffected gait would have been far too simple for ladies carrying such a load of artificial ornament: the neck stretched out, the eyes rolling wantonly, and a mincing or tripping step completed the picture,

and showed to what a depth of folly woman may sink through love of finery. Splendid equipages were also an object of ambition. Chariots were to be seen drawn by horses, camels, or asses, with elegant caparisons (Isa. xxi. 7); the patriarchal mode of riding on an ass being now confined to the poor.

There are some traces, but not many, of high intellectual culture. Isaiah speaks of "the counsellor, and the cunning artificer, and the eloquent orator," as if these were representatives of classes. We have seen that one of the kings of Judah (Uzziah) was remarkable for mechanical and engineering skill. Amos refers to "the seven stars and Orion," as if the elements of astronomy had been generally familiar to the people. On the other hand, there are pretty frequent references to soothsayers and sorcerers, indicating a low intellectual condition. The prevalence of idolatry could not fail to debase the intellect as well as corrupt the morals and disorder society.

Very deplorable, for the most part, are the allusions of the prophets to the abounding immorality. There is scarcely a vice that is not repeatedly denounced and wept over. The oppression of the poor was one of the most flagrant. Amos declares that the righteous were sold for silver, and the poor for a pair of shoes. From Hosea it appears that wives were bought and sold. The princes and rulers were specially blamed for their covetousness, their venality, their oppressions, their murders. (Isa. i. 23; x. 1. Hosea ix. 15.) Impurity and sensuality flourished under the shade of idolatry. In large towns there was a class that pandered to the vices of the licentious. (Amos vii. 17.) Robbery, lies, deceitful balances, were found everywhere. Even genuine grief, under affliction and bereavement, had become rare and difficult; and persons "skillful of lamentation" had to be hired to weep for the dead!

The revivals under the pious kings of Judah, as far as the masses were concerned, were rather galvanic impulses than kindlings of spiritual life. Yet it cannot be doubted that during these movements many hearts were truly turned to God. The new proofs that were daily occurring of God's dreadful abhorrence of sin, would lead many to cry more earnestly for deliverance from its punishment and its power.

In the disorganized and divided state into which the kingdom fell, rendering it difficult and even impossible for the annual festivals to be observed, the writings of the prophets, as well as the earlier portions of the written word, would contribute greatly to the nourishment of true piety. The 119th Psalm, with all its praises of the word and statutes of the Lord, is a memorable proof of the ardor with which the godly were now drinking from these wells of salvation. Increased study of the word would lead to enlarged knowledge of the Messiah, though even the prophets

themselves had to "search what, or what manner of time the Spirit of Christ which was in them did signify, when it testified beforehand the sufferings of Christ and the glory that should follow." One great result of the training of this period was, to carry forward the minds of the faithful beyond the present to the future. In the immediate foreground of prophecy all was dark and gloomy, and hope could find no rest but in the distant future. The shades of a dark night were gathering; its long weary hours had to pass before the day should break and the shadows flee away.

NOTE.—For a full account of the exodus, see the Book of Exodus.

CHAPTER V.

CONTEMPORARY NATIONS.

THE most important nations that flourished during the interval which elapsed between the time of the exodus of the Israelites from Egypt and the birth of our Saviour, a period of 1451 years, were Egypt, Assyria, Babylon, Media, Phœnicia, Carthage, Greece, Rome. Of these we can say little more than to briefly mention them.

I. EGYPT.

Egypt seems to have recovered ere long, from the terrible catastrophe of the Red Sea. For several centuries after the exodus, that kingdom enjoyed an extraordinary measure of prosperity. "Egypt rose up like a flood, and his waters were moved like the rivers; he said, I will go up, I will cover the earth, I will destroy the city and the inhabitants thereof."

The eighteenth and nineteenth dynasties, which the ancient Egyptians considered the most glorious of any, were on the throne during part of this period. They extended the conquests of the Egyptians far into Asia and Africa. Rameses II., of the nineteenth dynasty, commonly called Rameses the Great, was an illustrious conqueror. The Greeks called him Sesostris; but, according to Wilkinson, they confounded Rameses with Osirtasen, also a great conqueror, who ruled Egypt about 2000 years before Christ.

The Egyptian arms had now penetrated as far as Assyria, and the strong fortress of Carchemish, on the Euphrates, remained for centuries in their hands. The priests continued, for the most part, to enjoy their former influence. Everywhere the most magnificent temples, tombs, palaces, obelisks, statues, sphinxes, and other works of art, were executed during this period. The plain of Thebes was adorned with some of its

most wonderful buildings. In point of material glory, Egypt sat as a queen, with no one as yet to dispute her wonderful pre-eminence.

Rather more than 700 years B.C., towards the end of the kingdom of the ten tribes, Sabaco, a conqueror from Ethiopia, subdued the country and usurped the throne. He is called So in Scripture, and was the king on whom Hosea vainly relied for aid against the Assyrians. Tirhakah, another king of the Ethiopian dynasty, was the prince whose rumored advance against Sennacherib led that king to urge the submission of Hezekiah. (Isa. xxxvii. 9.)

A period of disorder occurs about this era in Egyptian history; by-and-by the throne is filled by Psammiticus. The usual residence of the royal family of Egypt was now at Sais, near the mouth of the Nile. Psammiticus was followed by Necho, in battle with whom king Josiah was killed. He attempted the union of the Red Sea and the Mediterranean by a canal, an undertaking that cost the lives of 120,000 men. A naval squadron sent out by him is said to have circumnavigated Africa, and returned to Egypt by the Pillars of Hercules, now the Straits of Gibraltar. His successor was Apries, the Pharaoh-hophra of the Bible, who was killed in trying to quell the rebellion of the usurper Amasis. During this period Egypt was coming into closer connection with Greece; her national peculiarities were declining, and the influence of the priesthood was decidedly on the wane. Great efforts were made by her to conquer Asia, but the military genius of Nebuchadnezzar repelled the invaders, and at last Egypt had to pay homage to Babylon.

2. ASSYRIA.

Much of the early history of Assyria is shrouded in obscurity. From the time, in very remote antiquity, when it absorbed Babylon, and became the ruling power in that part of the world, till it was itself destroyed and absorbed by Babylon, several revolutions occurred, and several dynasties of kings occupied the throne. Nineveh was not at all times the capital, or at least the seat of monarchy, but it seems to have been always the largest and noblest city of the empire; at least, in its palmy days, no other could be compared to it either in size or magnificence.

It was the practice of the kings of Assyria to record the chief events of their reigns on tablets or monuments, many of which have been preserved, and which Oriental scholars are now laboring to decipher. We may state briefly what the monuments are believed to record regarding some of the kings, and what we learn to have been the state of the empire in their time. Asshur-dani-pal (or Sardanapalus, of which name there were more kings than one), about the year B.C. 930 (or the time of Asa), was a great conqueror. He calls himself "the conqueror from the upper passage of

the Tigris to Lebanon and the Great Sea, who has reduced under his authorities all countries from the rising of the sun to the going down thereof." He built the northwest palace at Nimrud, which, next to that of Sennacherib at Koyunjik, is the largest and most magnificent of all the Assyrian edifices. A close analogy (says Rev. G. Rawlinson) has been pointed out between this style of building and the great edifices of the Jews, as described in Scripture and by Josephus, though the dimensions of the palace of Solomon fell far short of those of the Assyrian monarchs.* Another king, called on the monuments Shalmanu-bar (B.C. 910–860), frequently attacked Syria and the confines of Palestine. He fought with Benhadad, and afterwards with Hazael, whom he defeated, killing, according to his own account, 16,000 of his fighting men, and capturing 1,100 of his chariots. An inscription records the tribute which "Yahua, the son of Khumri"—supposed to mean "Jehu, the son (or successor) of Omri"—paid this king. Iva-lush (B.C. 800–747), thought to be Pul, records on his monuments tribute received from the country of Khumri (Omri—Samaria); corresponding to Menahem's payment of 1,000 talents. Of Tiglath-pileser the monuments are very imperfect. The name of Shalmaneser, the captor of Samaria, has not yet been found. Sargon (B.C. 721–702) captured Ashdod and other cities of the Philistines, and made war successfully with Egypt. He was followed by Sennacherib, who at vast cost repaired and beautified Nineveh, erecting the great Koyunjik palace, with its magnificent halls and galleries. His war-like achievements were such as enable us to understand his boastful language to King Hezekiah. In Chaldea, he destroyed seventy-nine cities and eight hundred and twenty villages. From the Nabatæans and Hagarenes he carried off more than two hundred thousand prisoners. Viewed in the light of his vast military prestige and resources, the resistance of Hezekiah to Sennacherib becomes sublime.

Esarhaddon, who carried Manasseh captive to Babylon, was a great improver of the empire. Thirty temples, "shining with silver and gold, as splendid as the sun," were built by him, and at least three new palaces. After him the Assyrian empire began rapidly to decline in war like power, though the fine arts were still carefully cultivated. The names of at least two other kings are found on the monuments. At length the Babylonians and the Medes, who had asserted their independence, succeeded in utterly destroying it, its king, Saracus, or Sardanapalus, perishing in the flames of his palace.† B.C. **625.**

* The palace of Solomon was 150 feet long and 75 broad—a space only 1-10th that of the palace of Sardanapalus, and not 1-30th that of Sennacherib.

† See that most elaborate and careful work—to which we have so often been indebted—the History of Herodotus, translated and edited, with copious notes, by

3. BABYLON AND MEDIA.

The early history of Babylon, like that of Assyria, is very obscure. It seems for a long time to have been a dependent kingdom under Assyria. Occasionally its kings asserted independence. In the time of Hezekiah, Merodach-baladan was an independent king; but the kingdom was soon after conquered by the Assyrians. The last Assyrian king appointed Nabopolassar governor of Babylon. Nabopolassar proved treacherous, and became the founder of the new Babylonian empire. In union with Cyaxares, the Median monarch, he attacked Nineveh, and destroyed it. Nabopolassar was succeeded by his son Nebuchadnezzar, the conqueror of Jerusalem.

The Medes are thought to have been a people of Eastern origin, who emigrated from near the Indus to the country to which they gave their name. For a long time their kingdom seems to have borne some sort of dependent relation to the great dominating power of Assyria. At length, under their king Cyaxares, having achieved their independence, they joined with the Babylonians in destroying Nineveh. Under Cyrus, the Medes and Persians united, and founded the great empire that succeeded the Babylonian.

4. PHŒNICIA.

Phœnicia, though not altogether a stranger to arms and war, continued for the most part to prosecute her maritime and commercial pursuits. It was during this period that Tyre reached its zenith. As the prophet Elijah passed through it on his way to Zarephath, he could not have been less astonished at what he beheld than Jonah in Nineveh. Never had he seen such markets, such warehouses, such ships. If his visit was paid during one of the great fairs, the contrast with the quiet cities of Israel must have been overwhelming. Proud is the flag of embroidered Egyptian linen, known in every seaport of the world, that floats over the vessels, with the blue and purple awnings, in yonder harbor. The market-place of the town would only have had to be covered with a roof of Phœnician glass to become "a crystal palace"—an exposition of the industry of all nations. (Ezek. xxvii.)

Every country that possesses a valuable commodity of any sort is represented there. From the distant west, Tarshish sends silver, iron, tin, and lead. Armenia sends horses, probably of the famous Nissæan breed. Arabia sends horns and ivory, cassia and calamus, lambs and goats.

George Rawlinson, M.A., assisted by (his brother) Col. Sir Henry Rawlinson, and Sir J. G. Wilkinson. Vols. i. ii. iii. London, 1858.

Syria exhibits precious stones, fine linen, and broidered work. From the land of Israel have come wheat and honey, oil and the balm of Gilead. Damascus sends wine, the famous chalybon of the Greeks, and unwrought wool. From the ancient dominions of the Queen of Sheba have come spices, precious stones, and gold.

From Assyria have been forwarded cedar boxes, bound with cords, containing rich apparel, the blue cloth of the Assyrian uniforms, and broidered work. True to the idea of an Eastern market, a space is allocated for the exposure of slaves, and Javan, Tubal, and Meshech send up the miserable creatures whose descendants, from Georgia and Circassia, in the same locality, are still bought and sold in the markets of the East.

What would the "merchant-princes" of Tyre have thought, in the midst of all this greatness, had some one read to them a verse which a Hebrew prophet, on the distant banks of the Chebar, was inditing at the very time when their pride had received a new accession by the fall of Jerusalem?—"Thy riches, and thy fairs, thy merchandise, thy mariners, and thy pilots, thy calkers, and the occupiers of thy merchandise, and all thy men of war, that are in thee, shall fall into the midst of the seas in the day of thy ruin!"

5. CARTHAGE.

The great empire of Carthage, which was long the dominating power in northwestern Africa and western Europe, sprung from a colony of Tyre. It was founded about 880 years B.C.—about the time when Jezebel, a native of the same district, was forcing on the Israelites the worship of Baal. The territories of Carthage were gradually extended, and through her vigorous system of colonization, most of the islands and sea-coasts in the west of Europe fell into her hands. It is probable that the rapid extension of the Carthaginians tended to spread the impure, idolatrous worship which they had brought from Tyre. Whatever commercial advantages they may have contributed to circulate among the barbarous nations with whom they came into contact, that of religious light was certainly none of their gifts.

The religious darkness of western Europe must now have been fearfully deep.

6. GREECE.

Of all the countries that begin during this period to loom in the horizon of history, the most interesting by far is Greece. The situation of Greece, and its physical features, marked it out from the beginning as a remarkable land. It juts out into the sea, so as to command easy access to the three great continents, Europe, Asia, and Africa. It is remarkable for the extraordinary extent of its seaboard, being penetrated in every direction by gulfs,

bays, and creeks, which invited the settlement of adventurous parties, and encouraged those enterprises of which its early history was full. Nothing is known with certainty of its earliest inhabitants. The Titans may have been a gigantic race, allied perhaps to the Emim, Horim, and Anakim, races of early Palestine; but their history is wrapped in fable. It is common to trace the more civilized inhabitants of Greece to foreign colonies, of which the chief were those of Cecrops and Danaus from Egypt, already mentioned; that of Cadmus from Phœnicia; and that of Pelops from Asia Minor. Yet here also doubt and uncertainty prevail.

But there is no doubt that about 1400 B.C., while the judges were ruling Israel, there appeared in Greece a very remarkable people—the Hellenes, from whom the country was called Hellas. They were a people of extraordinary energy and spirit, devoted to war and conquest, adventure and discovery, yet with a wonderful capacity of education; fond, too, of the arts and pleasures of peace, and ready to bear the restraints of religion and social order. It was not long ere their stirring spirit spread itself through the other races of the country. For about two hundred years Greece was filled with their exploits and adventures. They furnished the great mine from which the Greek poets drew their materials.

It is in the period which we have now been surveying that we are to place the dawn of Grecian literature. If, according to Herodotus, Homer lived about 900 years B.C., he must have been composing the "Iliad" when Elijah and Elisha were maintaining God's cause in Israel, and Jehoshaphat in Judah. Hesiod, Tyrtæus, Alcæus, and Sappho sung their verses in the seventh century before Christ; and Æsop may have published his fables at Athens while Jeremiah was announcing his prophecies at Jerusalem.

7. ROME.

In the south of Europe a new nation now begins to raise its head. The Romans were in many points quite a contrast to the Greeks. Instead of the endless diversity of manners, society, arts, and government of the latter, the Romans presented a rigid unity; and the lively, elastic, chivalrous spirit of the one was succeeded by the sombre, prosaic uniformity of the other.

The Romans were remarkable for their sturdy, plodding, indomitable purpose; they were painstaking and sagacious; constantly on the alert to discover anything in their own favor; successful and victorious to a degree that almost provokes one. In the more advanced periods of their history, conquest was the avowed object of their existence—they lived for it alone. Their rod was a rod of iron, and the world was made to feel its severity.

Rome is said to have been founded B.C. 752—about the time when the king of Assyria was beginning to invade the kingdom of Israel. The history of the Romans under their kings is admitted to be full of legend and fable; and till a later period we have scarcely an authentic fact regarding the people that were destined, in the wonderful purpose of God, to be the connecting link between the great continents of Asia, Europe, and Africa, and thus, all unconsciously to themselves, prepare the way for the universal empire of Messiah.

SECOND PERIOD.

FROM THE OPENING OF THE CHRISTIAN ERA TO THE FALL OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE.

CHAPTER I.

THE CRUCIFIXION.

THE great central event in all history is the death of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ. The centuries circle round the cross. Hundreds of stately figures—some in dazzling lustre, some in deepest gloom—crowd upon our gaze, as the story of the world unrolls before us; but infinitely nobler than the grandest of these is the pale form of Jesus, hanging on the rough and reddened wood at Calvary—dead, but victorious even in dying—stronger in that marble sleep than the mightiest of the world's living actors, or than all the marshalled hosts of sin and death. Not the greatest sight only, but the strangest ever seen; for there, at the foot of the cross, lie Death slain with his own dart, and Hell vanquished at his very gate.

All that have ever lived—all living now—all who shall come after us, till time shall be no more, must feel the power of the cross. To those who look upon their dying Lord with loving trust, it brings life and joy, but death and woe to all who proudly reject that great salvation, or pass it unheeding by.

The details of that stupendous history—His lowly, yet royal birth—His pure, stainless life—His path of mystery and miracle—His wondrous works, and still more wondrous words—His agony—His cross—His glorious resurrection and ascension—all form a theme too sacred to be placed here with a record of mere common time, or blended with the dark, sad tale of human follies and crimes. Rather let us read it as they tell it who were themselves "eye-witnesses of His majesty"—who traced the very footsteps, and heard the very voice, and beheld the very living face of incarnate love. And remember, as you read, that history is false to her noblest trust if she fails to teach that it is the power of the cross of Christ which alone preserves the world from hopeless corruption, and redeems

from utter vanity the whole life of man on earth. Wildly, and blindly, and very far, have the nations often drifted from the right course—there seemed to be no star in heaven, and no lamp on earth; but through every change an unseen omnipotent hand was guiding all things for the best: soul after soul was drawn by love's mighty attraction to the cross; light arose out of darkness; a new life breathed over the world; and the wilderness, where Satan seemed alone to dwell, blossomed anew into the garden of God.

CHAPTER II.

THE SIEGE OF JERUSALEM.

Central Point: THE BURNING OF THE TEMPLE.

View of the city—Vespasian—March of Titus—Factions within the walls—Opening of the siege—First wall taken—Second wall taken—Pause of five days—The famine—Roman banks burned—Capture of the Tower of Antonia—Strange omens—Horrors of the siege—Burning of the temple—Upper city taken—The triumph at Rome.

"THE days shall come upon thee, that thine enemies shall cast a trench about thee, and compass thee round, and keep thee in on every side, and shall lay thee even with the ground, and thy children within thee; and they shall not leave in thee one stone upon another." (Luke xix. 43, 44.) So said Jesus, as, riding on a colt down the leafy slope of Olivet, he looked through His dropping tears upon Jerusalem.

His gaze could trace every turret and winding of the three walls with which the city was enclosed. Below, in the deep valley, ran the silver thread of Cedron. Right in front, cutting the western sky, and crowning the steep crest of Moriah with white and gold, the countless spikes which studded its burnished roof flashing in the sunlight, rose the magnificent temple, enlarged and completed by Herod the Great.

To the southwest—highest of the four hills on which the city lay—towered the rocky Zion, bearing on its rugged shoulders the citadel, the royal palace, and the houses of the upper city. Behind the temple, and north of Zion, was the hill Acra, shaped like a horned moon, and covered with the terraces and gardens of the lower city; while on another slope Bezetha, or the new city, stretched further north towards the open country.

The aspect of the city had changed but little when, thirty-seven years later, the Roman eagles gathered round their prey. But during these years the Jews, as if maddened by the sacred blood for which they had thirsted so fiercely, had been plunging deeper and deeper into sin and

wretchedness. At last, goaded by outrage and insult, they had risen against their Roman masters; and the great Vespasian, a general trained in German and British wars, had been sent by Nero to tame their stubborn pride. Moving with his legions from Antioch to Ptolemais, he was there joined by his son Titus, who brought forces from Egypt.

67 A.D. Galilee and Perea were subdued with some trouble and delay; and the conqueror, having drawn a circle of forts round Jerusalem, was at Cesarea, preparing for the last great blow, when he heard the news of Nero's death.

The murder of Galba, the suicide of Otho, and the seizure of Rome by the glutton Vitellius and his plundering soldiers, followed in quick succession. The army in Palestine then proclaimed Vespasian emperor. He hastened to secure Alexandria, the second city in the empire, and having heard while there that Vitellius was dead, and that the people of Rome were holding feasts in his own honor, he set out for Italy. So the siege of Jerusalem was left to Titus.

Mustering his forces at Cesarea, and dividing them into three bands, he marched for the doomed city. Arrived there, he fortified three camps—one on the north, one on the west, and one, garrisoned by the 10th Legion, on the Mount of Olives. Upon this last the Jews made a sally as the soldiers were digging the trenches; but they were soon beaten down the hill.

While the trumpets were blowing at Cesarea, and the clang of the Roman march was shaking the land, murder, and outrage, and cruel terror filled all Jerusalem. Robbers, calling themselves zealots, had flocked in from the country. Eleazar, at the head of one set of these, held the inner court of the temple. John of Gischala, another leader of ruffians, occupying ground somewhat lower, poured constant showers of darts and stones into the holy house, often killing worshippers as they stood at the very altar. In this mad war, houses full of corn were burned, and misery of every kind was inflicted on the wretched people. In despair they called in Simon of Gerasa to their aid, and thus there were three hostile factions within the walls.

The great feast of the Passover came, and the temple was thrown open to the thousands who crowded from every corner of the land to offer up their yearly sacrifice. Mingling in disguise with the throng, with weapons under their clothes, John's party gained entrance into the sacred court, and soon drove out their foes. The poor worshippers, all trampled and bleeding, escaped as best they could. John remained master of the temple, and the three factions were reduced to two.

Within the city there were above twenty-three thousand fighting men—a strong body if united. There was, indeed, a temporary union, when they saw the Roman soldiers busily cutting down all the trees in the suburbs,

rolling their trunks together, and to the top of the three great banks thus formed dragging the huge siege-engines of the time—rams, catapults, and balists.

The siege opened in three places at once on the 22d day of Xanthicus, or Nisan. The Roman missiles poured like hail upon the city; but none were so terrible as the stones, sometimes weighing a talent, which were cast from the east by the 10th Legion. The Jewish watchmen, soon learning to know these by their white color and tremendous whiz, used to cry out, "The son cometh;" then all in the way fell flat, and little mischief was done. But the Romans, not to be tricked, painted the stones black, and battered on more destructively than ever. The Jews replied with some engines planted on the wall by Simon, flung torches at the Roman banks, and made an unavailing sally at the Tower of Hippicus. **April, 70 A.D.**

Three towers of heavy timber, covered with thick iron plates, were then erected by Titus. Rising higher than the walls, and carrying light engines, they were used to drive the Jews from their posts of defence. The falling of one of these at midnight with a loud crash spread alarm through the Roman camp, but it did not last long. At dawn the rams were swinging away, and pounding against the shaking wall, which, on the fifteenth day of the siege, yielded to Nico (the conqueror), as the most ponderous of the Roman engines was called by the Jews. The legions, pouring through the breach, gained the first wall.

Pitching his camp within the city, Titus then attacked the second wall, where he was vigorously met both by Simon and John. Sorties and wall-fighting filled up every hour of daylight; and both sides lay by night in their armor, snatching hasty and broken sleep. In five days the second wall was forced. Titus passed within it at the head of one thousand men; but the Jews set on him so hotly in the narrow streets, that they soon drove him out again. Easily elated, they exulted greatly in this success; but, four days later, the second wall was retaken, and levelled to the ground.

Then followed a pause of five days, during which the Romans, having received their subsistence money, paraded, as their custom was, in glittering armor. The wall and the temple-roofs were paved with pale Jewish faces, beholding nothing in the splendid sight but terror and despair. The attack was renewed at John's monument and the Tower of Antonia. At the same time Josephus, a noble Jew, from whose graphic history this sketch is drawn, went to the walls, as he had done before—as he did more than once again, to plead with his countrymen. But all in vain, for the zealots were bent on holding out, and slew such of the people as they found trying to desert.

Famine had long before begun its deadly work. Mothers were already snatching the morsels from their children's lips. The robbers broke open every shut door in search of food, and tortured most horribly all who were thought to have a hidden store. Gaunt men, who had crept beyond the walls by night to gather a few wild herbs, were often robbed by these wretches of the poor handful of green leaves for which they had risked their lives. Yet, in spite of this, the starving people went out into the valleys in such numbers that the Romans caught them at the rate of five hundred a day, and crucified them before the walls, until there was no room to plant, and no wood to make another cross. What a fearful retribution for that mad cry, uttered, some seven and thirty years before, at Pilate's judgment-seat: "His blood be on us and on our children!"

The Romans then raised four great banks. But these, which cost seventeen days' labor, were all destroyed—two by John, who dug a mine below them, and set fire to the timbers of its roof—and the others by three brave Jews, who rushed out upon the engines, torch in hand. And then it was "pull Roman, pull Jew," and heavy blows were dealt round the red-hot rams. The Romans were driven to their camp, but the guard at the gate stood firm; and Titus, taking the Jews in flank, compelled them to retreat.

This serious loss made Titus resolve to hem in the city with a wall. It was built in the amazingly short time of three days. The attack was then directed against the Tower of Antonia, which stood at the northwest corner of the temple, on a slippery rock, fifty cubits high. Four new banks were raised. Some Roman soldiers, creeping in with their shields above their heads, loosened four of the foundation stones; and the wall, battered at all day, fell suddenly in the night. But there was another wall inside. One Sabinus, a little black Syrian soldier, led a forlorn hope of eleven men up to this in broad noonday, gained the top, and put the Jews to flight; but tripping over a stone he was killed, as were three of his band.

A night or two after, sixteen Romans stole up the wall, slew the guards, and blew a startling trumpet-blast. The Jews fled. Titus and his men, swarming up the ruined wall, dashed at the entrance of the temple, where, for ten hours, a bloody fight raged. Julian, a centurion of Bithynia, attacking the Jews single-handed, drove them to the inner court; but the sharp nails in his shoes having caused him to fall with a clang on the marble floor, they turned back and slew him, with many wounds. Then, following up their success, they drove the Romans out of the temple, but not from the Tower of Antonia.

Strange omens had foretold the coming doom. A star, shaped like a sword, had hung for a year over the city. A brazen gate of the inner court, which twenty men could hardly move, had swung back on its

hinges of itself. Shadows, resembling chariots and soldiers attacking a city, had appeared in the sky one evening before sunset. And at Pentecost, as the priests were going by night into the inner court, they heard murmuring voices, as of a great crowd, saying, "Let us go hence."

After the Roman wall was built, the famine and the plague grew worse. Young men dropped dead in the streets. Piles of decaying corpses filled the lanes, and were thrown by tens of thousands over the walls. No herbs were to be got now. Men, in the rage of hunger, gnawed their shoes, the leather of their shields, and even old wisps of hay. Robbers, with wolfish eyes, ransacked every dwelling, and, when one day they came clamoring for food to the house of Mary, the daughter of Eleazar, a high-born lady of Perea, she set before them the roasted flesh of her own infant son, whom she had slain. "This," screamed she, "is mine own son. Eat of this food, for I have eaten of it myself." Brutal and rabid though they were, they fled in horror from the house of that wretched mother.

At last the daily sacrifice ceased to be offered, and the war closed round the temple. The cloisters were soon burned. Six days' battering had no effect on the great gates; fire alone could clear a path for the eagles. A day was fixed for the grand assault; but on the evening before (10th Lous, or Ab), the Romans having penetrated as far as the holy house, a soldier, climbing on the shoulders of another, put a blazing torch to one of the golden windows of the north side. The building was soon a sheet of leaping flames; and Titus, who had always desired to save the temple, came running from his tent, but the din of war and the crackling flames prevented his voice from being heard. On over the smoking cloisters trampled the legions, fierce for plunder. The Jews sank in heaps of dead and dying round the altar, which dripped with their blood. More fire was thrown upon the hinges of the gate; and then no human word or hand could save the house where God Himself had loved to dwell. Never did the stars of night look down on a more piteous scene. Sky and hill, and town and valley, were all reddened with one fearful hue. The roar of flames, the shouts of Romans, the shrieks of wounded zealots, rose wild into the scorching air, and echoed among the mountains all around. But sadder far was the wail of broken hearts which burst from the streets below, when marble wall and roof of gold came crashing down, and the temple was no more. Then, and only then, did the Jews let go the trust—that God would deliver His ancient people, smiting the Romans with some sudden blow.

Aug. 70 A.D.

The upper city then became a last refuge for the despairing remnant of the garrison. Simon and John were there; but the arrogant tyrants were broken down to trembling cowards. And when, after eighteen days' work, banks were raised, and the terrible ram began to sound anew on the ram-

parts, the panic-struck Jews fled like hunted foxes to hide in the caves of the hill. The eagles flew victorious to the summit of the citadel, while Jewish blood ran so deep down Zion that burning houses were quenched in the red stream.

The siege lasted one hundred and thirty-four days, during which one million one hundred thousand Jews perished, and ninety-seven thousand were taken captive. Some were kept to grace the Roman triumph; some were sent to toil in the mines of Egypt; some fought in provincial theatres with gladiators and wild beasts; those under seventeen were sold as slaves. John was imprisoned for life; Simon, after being led in triumph, was slain at Rome.

It was a gay holiday when the emperor and his son, crowned with laurel and clad in purple, passed in triumph through the crowded streets of Rome. Of the many rich spoils adorning the pageant none were gazed on with more curious eyes than the golden table, the candlestick with seven branching lamps, and the holy book of the law, rescued from the flames of the temple. It was the last page of a tragic story. The Mosaic dispensation had come to a close, and the Jews—homeless ever since, yet always preserving an indestructible nationality—were scattered among the cities of earth, to be the Shylocks of a day that is gone by, and the Rothschilds of our own happier age.

ROMAN EMPERORS OF THE FIRST CENTURY.

	A.D.
Augustus	
Tiberius	14
Caligula	37
Claudius	41
Nero	54
Galba	68
Otho	69
Vitellius	69
Vespasian	69
Titus	79
Domitian	81
Nerva	96
Trajan	98

CHAPTER III.

EARLY PERSECUTIONS OF THE CHRISTIAN CHURCH.

Central Point: DIOCLETIAN'S PERSECUTION. 303, A.D.

The fire of Rome—Persecution under Domitian—Trajan's edict—Torture inflicted—Martyrdom of Polycarp—The miracle of rain—Persecution at Lyons—Story of Perpetua—Rage of pagan mobs—The Decian storm—Valerian's edict—Aurelian—The last persecution—Edict of Galerius.

ELEVEN persecutions of the Christians—some fiercer, others fainter—marked the dying struggles of the many-headed monster, Paganism. More than three centuries were filled with the sound and sorrows of the great conflict.

1. In the tenth year of the brutal Nero's reign the first great persecution of Christians took place. A fire, such as never had burned before, consumed nearly the whole city of Rome; and men said that the emperor's own hand had kindled the flames out of mere wicked sport, and that, while the blazing city was filled with shrieks of pain and terror, he sat calmly looking on and singing verses on the burning of Troy to the music of his lyre. 64 A.D.

This story finding ready acceptance among the homeless and beggared people, the tyrant strove, by inflicting tortures on the Christians, to turn the suspicion from himself upon them. On the pretence that they were guilty of the atrocious crime, he crucified many; some, covered with the skins of wild beasts, were worried to death by dogs in the theatres; tender girls and gray-haired men were torn by tigers, or hacked with the swords of gladiators. But the worst sight was seen in the gardens of Nero, where chariot races were held by night, in which the emperor himself, dressed as a common driver, whipped his horses round the goal. There stood poor men and women of the Christian faith, their clothes smeared with pitch, or other combustible, all blazing as torches to throw light on the sport of the imperial demon. In the wider persecutions that followed, for this one was chiefly confined to Rome, there was perhaps no scene of equal horror.

2. By Domitian, sixth in succession from Nero, proceedings of great severity, but of a character less brutal, were taken against the Christians. It was a harvest-time for the spies, who crept everywhere, and grew rich with the spoils of the dead and the exiles. The cousin and the niece of the emperor, accused only of "Atheism and Jewish manners," were among the sufferers. Many were banished; among them St. John the Evangelist.

Driven, about 95 A.D., to the isle of Patmos, he saw there those visions of glory and mystery recorded in the book of Revelation. The two grandsons of St. Jude, who was the brother of our Saviour, were brought before a Roman tribunal, charged with aiming at royal power, for they traced descent from David. But when they showed their hands hardened with honest toil on their little farm, they were sent home unhurt.

3. Under the gentle Nerva the Christians lived in peace, and spying ceased to be a well-paid business; but when Trajan, a stern Spanish soldier, wore the purple, evil days returned, as yet, however, only in a single province. Pliny the younger, appointed proconsul of Bithynia and Pontus, found himself at a loss how to deal with the Christians, who were very numerous under his rule. He wrote to the emperor, saying that the superstition—so he called it—had spread everywhere among rich and poor; that the temples were empty, and the sacrifices were hardly ever offered.

110 A.D.

But the worst he could say of the Christians, although he seems to have taken great pains to know all about them, was that they used to meet on a certain day (Sunday) to sing a hymn in honor of Christ; that they bound one another by a vow not to steal, or commit adultery, or break their words, or defraud any one; and that on the same evening they met at a simple and innocent meal. The fact that a skillful lawyer, as Pliny was, did not know how to deal with the Christians, shows that there were no special laws as yet framed against them.

The answer of Trajan must be looked on as the first edict of persecution. It declared that the Christians were not to be sought for by the police, like common criminals; but that, when openly accused and convicted, they were to be punished. However, before receiving the imperial rescript, Pliny had let loose the terrors of the law. He demanded that the Christians, cursing Christ, should burn incense and pour wine before the statues of the emperor and the gods. Those who refused died; some, of weaker faith, yielded to the terror of the hour.

4. Early in the reign of Adrian, who came to the throne in 117, the rage of the pagan mobs burst out upon the Christians with a force which had been gathering for years. Those attacks, which were encouraged by the common belief that Christianity was now condemned by law, took place especially in Asia Minor. Two learned Christians approached the throne with apologies or defences of their faith, when the emperor came into their neighborhood on one of the constant and rapid journeys for which he was remarkable. Influenced, perhaps, by these addresses, but rather by his love of justice and order, he published an edict, forbidding Christians to be arrested on mere rumor, and ordering all false informers to be heavily punished. However, in Palestine, Bar-cochba, an impostor, who claimed

to be the Messiah, put many Christians to a cruel death, because they refused to follow his flag of rebellion.

The reign of the elder Antonine was a time of comparative peace to the Christians; but when Marcus Aurelius, the stoic philosopher, became emperor, in 161, there was a change. Active search was made for Christians. Torture began to be inflicted on them. It seemed, indeed, as if both the rulers and the people of pagan Rome were beginning to realize, though as yet vaguely and dimly, the growth of that stone, cut out without hands, which was destined soon to shiver the idols in all their temples, and smite their iron empire into dust.

5. At Smyrna the Christian Church suffered heavily. Yielding to the rage of the heathens and the Jews, the proconsul flung the followers of Jesus to wild beasts, or burned them alive. The noblest of the noble victims was Bishop Polycarp, a man bending under the weight of nearly ninety years. When seized he asked for an hour to pray. They gave him two, then hurried him on an ass towards the city. The chief of police, meeting him on the way, took him up into his chariot, and vainly strove to turn him from the faith. On his refusal he was flung so violently to the ground that a bone of his leg was injured. Before the tribunal, amid a crowd howling for his blood, he was urged to curse Christ. "Eighty-six years," said he, "have I served Him, and He has done me nothing but good; and how could I curse Him, my Lord and Saviour?" Before the flames rose round him, he cried aloud, thanking God for judging him worthy to drink of the cup of Christ. **167 A.D.**

The legend of the "thundering Legion," which belongs to this period, probably rests on some historical foundation, though handed down to us manifestly in a somewhat mythical form. While Marcus Aurelius, so the story runs, was warring with some German tribes, his soldiers, marching one day under a burning sun, were parched with deadly thirst. The foe, hovering near, threatened an attack. A terrible death seemed to stare them in the face, when a band of Christian soldiers, falling on their knees, prayed for help. A peal of thunder, accompanied with heavy rain, was the immediate, and, as it seemed, miraculous response from the skies; and the soldiers, catching the precious drops in their helmets, drank and were saved. **174 A.D.**

6. This event is said to have softened the emperor's feelings towards the Christians; but the change, if any, was very slight, for three years later, a fierce persecution arose in the heart of Gaul, at Lyons and Vienne. Pothinus, the bishop, a feeble old man of ninety, died in a dungeon. Those Christians who were Roman citizens enjoyed the privilege of death by the sword; the rest were torn by wild beasts. The friends of the dead were denied even the poor con- **177 A.D.**

solation of burying their loved ones; for the mutilated bodies were burned to ashes, and scattered upon the waters of the Rhone. One Symphorian, a young man of Autun, a town not far from Lyons, was beheaded for refusing to fall on his knees before the car of the idol Cybele. As he went to execution, his soul was strengthened by his mother's voice, crying, "My son, my son, be steadfast; look up to Him who dwells in heaven. To-day thy life is not taken from thee, but raised to a better!"

7. The reign of Septimius Severus was marked by a terrible persecution in Africa. By the same emperor a law was passed, forbidding any one to become either a Jew or a Christian.

202 A.D.

From many touching stories of those bitter days take one. A young mother, named Perpetua, aged only twenty-two, was arrested at Carthage for being a Christian. Her father was a pagan; but from her mother's lips she had learned to love Christ. When she was dragged before the magistrate, her gray-haired father prayed her earnestly to recant; but, pointing to a vessel that lay on the ground, she said, "Can I call this vessel what it is not?" "No." "Neither, then, can I call myself anything but a Christian." Her little baby was taken from her, and she was cast into a dark, crowded dungeon. There was no light in her desolate heart for some days, until her child was given to her again; and then, in her own tender words, "the dungeon became a palace." Before the trial came on, her father pleaded again with tears, and kisses, and words of agony, seeking to turn her from what he considered her obstinate folly. But all in vain. Neither her father's tears nor her baby's cries could wean her soul from Christ; and she died with many others, torn to pieces in the circus by savage beasts, amid the yells of still more savage men.

8. Maximin, the Thracian giant, who gained the purple by murder in 235, persecuted those Christian bishops who had been friends of his predecessor. In many provinces, too—Pontus and Cappadocia, for instance—the people, roused to fury by severe earthquakes, fell upon the Christians, crying out that their blasphemies had brought these judgments on the land.

9. Conquering Philip the Arabian, Decius Trajan ascended the throne; and then the long calm which the Christians of Rome had enjoyed was rudely broken. One great use of these persecutions was the sifting of the Church—the driving out of those who, in peaceful days, had become Christians from convenience merely or vanity. The gold was tested and refined in a fiery furnace. Decius seems to have resolved utterly to destroy Christianity. His hatred of the bishops was intense. Fabianus, the Roman bishop, was martyred. Both in Rome and the provinces imprisonment and torture awaited every faithful witness; and among the refinements of torture, hunger and thirst

249 A.D.

came into common use. But a rebellion in Macedonia and a Gothic war turned the attention of the emperor from the Christians, and by his death they soon gained a short breathing time.

10. In the fourth year of Valerian an edict was issued in unmistakable words—"*Let bishops, presbyters, and deacons at once be put to the sword.*" The aim of this edict seems to have been to check Christianity by cutting off the heads of the Church. Sixtus, the Roman bishop, and four deacons were the first to suffer. But a more distinguished victim was Cyprian, Bishop of Carthage, who, after having escaped the Decian storm, was now beheaded for refusing to sacrifice to the pagan idols. Valerian having been defeated by Sapor, the Persian king, whose triumphal car he was forced to drag in chains, died in the far East. His son Gallienus restored to the Christians their burial-grounds, and other property taken from them in the late reign. This was a great step, for it was a public acknowledgment that the Christian Church was a legal society; and it no doubt did much to save Christians from the wrath of the low-born fire-worshipper Aurelian, who became Emperor in 270. A bigot by nature, and bent upon persecution, he yet allowed five years to slip away without striking a blow at the cross. His murder in 275 left forty years of peace to the Church, which, like a sturdy young oak-tree, amid all these great and frequent tempests, had been only striking its roots deeper, and taking a firmer grasp of the soil.

258 A.D.

11. Fiercest, widest, and last, was the persecution that broke out under Diocletian and Maximian. On the day of the feast Terminalia, at early dawn, the splendid church of Nicomedia, a city of Bithynia, where Diocletian had fixed his court, was broken open; all copies of the Bible found there were burned, and the walls were levelled to the ground by the imperial soldiers. This was done at the instigation of Galerius, the emperor's son-in-law. Next day a terrible edict appeared, commanding all Christian churches to be pulled down, all Bibles to be flung into the fire, and all Christians to be degraded from rank and honor. Scarcely was the proclamation posted up, when a Christian of noble rank tore it to pieces. For this he was roasted to death.

Feb. 23, 303 A.D.

A fire, which broke out in the palace twice within a fortnight, was made a pretence for very violent dealings with the Christians. Those who refused to burn incense to idols were tortured or slain. Over all the empire the persecution raged, except in Gaul, Britain, and Spain, where Constantius Chlorus ruled. Yet there, too, it was slightly felt. Even after the abdication of the emperors in 305, Galerius kept the fires blazing; and so far did this pagan go in his miserable zeal, that he caused all the food in the markets to be sprinkled with wine or water used in sacrifice, that thus

the Christians might be driven into some contact with idol-worship. With little rest for eight years, the whip and the rack, the tigers, the hooks of steel, and the red-hot beds, continued to do their deadly work. And then, in 311, when life was fading from his dying eye, and the blood of martyrs lay dark upon his trembling soul, Galerius published an edict, permitting Christians to worship God in their own way. This was the turning-point in the great strife; and henceforward Roman heathenism rapidly decayed until it was finally abolished by Theodosius in 394.

ROMAN EMPERORS OF THE SECOND AND THIRD CENTURIES.

SECOND CENTURY.

	A.D.
Trajan	
Adrian	117
Antoninus Pius	138
Marc. Aurelius and L. Verus	161
Commodus	180
Pertinax	193
Severus	193

THIRD CENTURY.

Caracalla and Geta	211
Macrinus	217
Heliogabalus	218
Alex. Severus	222
Maximin	235
Gordian and his Son	237
Balbinus and Pupienus	237
Gordian the Younger	238
Philip the Arabian	244
Decius	249
Gallus and his Son	251
Æmilianus	253
Valerian and his Son	253
Gallienus	260
Claudius II	268
Quintillus	270
Aurelian	270
Interregnum for nine months	275
Tacitus	275
Florian	276

PROBUS..... 276
CARUS..... 282
CARINUS AND NUMERIAN..... 283
DIOCLETIAN..... 284
MAXIMIAN TAKEN AS A COLLEAGUE..... 286

CHAPTER IV.

THE REIGN OF CONSTANTINE THE GREAT.

Central Point: REMOVAL OF THE SEAT OF EMPIRE TO CONSTANTINOPLE, 330 A.D.

Birth and early days—Proclaimed emperor—Six emperors at once—Battle of the Red Rocks—Vision of the cross—Emperors reduced to two—Death of Licinius—Christianity favored—First general council—Site of the new capital—Its dedication—Constantine's policy—His last years—His death—His character.

THE reign of Constantine is remarkable in Roman history for three reasons: he was the first emperor professing Christianity; he adopted a new policy, in which we can detect some foreshadows of the speedy decay of the western empire; he founded a new capital, thus giving a powerful impulse to that separation of the empire into east and west, which began under Diocletian in 286, and was completed in 364, when the brothers Valens and Valentinian wore the purple.

Constantine the Great was born at Naissus in Dacia; some say at Drepanum in Bithynia. His father was Constantius Chlorus (the Sallow), who ruled Gaul, Britain, and Spain; his mother Helena was the daughter of an innkeeper. **274** A.D.

The mother being divorced, the son, who shared her fall, was left at eighteen with little fortune but his sword. Taking service under Diocletian, he fought his way up in Egyptian and Persian wars to be a tribune of the first rank; and so popular did the brave youth become with the soldiers, that Galerius, Emperor of the East, began to look upon him with a jealous eye. Just then came word that Constantius, whose health was failing, wished to see his long-estranged son. Setting out at night from Nicomedia, Constantine hurried overland to join his father at Boulogne. Together they crossed to Britain, where soon afterwards the father died at York.

Constantine, at once proclaimed emperor by the soldiers of the West, wrote, announcing the event, to Galerius, who in answer acknowledged him as his father's successor, but conferred on him only the title of *Cæsar*, reserving the higher step *Augustus* for a favorite friend. This, no doubt, galled Constantine at the moment; but, like a man of prudence, he was content to bide his time. **306** A.D.

Two years later the world saw a strange sight, without parallel before or since—six emperors dividing the Roman dominion among them. In the West were Maximian, his son Maxentius, and Constantine; in the East Galerius, Licinius, and Maximin. Maximian, once the colleague of Diocletian, had already bestowed on Constantine the hand of his daughter Fausta, and the title of Augustus.

308 A.D.

But among six emperors there could be little union. Every man's hand was soon turned against his fellow. The first to die was old Maximian, who, falling into the hands of his son-in-law at Marseilles, was there slain in secret. The death of Galerius, from disease caused by intemperance, reduced the list still further. And then Constantine, with a sword sharpened by six years' successful war in Gaul, crossed the Alps to do battle with the effeminate Maxentius. Susa, at the foot of Mount Cenis, was stormed in a single day. Forty miles further on, at Turin, he scattered an army strong in mail-clad cavalry. Milan and Verona then fell; and the way to Rome was open.

312 A.D.

At the Red Rocks (Saxa Rubra), nine miles from Rome, he found the army of Maxentius in line of battle, the Tiber guarding their rear. Constantine led on his Gallic horse, and made short work of the unwieldy masses of cavalry that covered his rival's flanks. The Italian footmen of the centre then fled, almost without striking a blow. Thousands were driven into the Tiber. The brave Prætorians, despairing of mercy, died in heaps where they stood. A bridge near the modern Ponte Milvio was so choked with flying soldiers, that Maxentius, in trying to struggle through the crowd, was pushed into the water, and drowned by his weighty armor.

Writers of the time tell us that, before this battle, Constantine saw the vision of a cross hung in the sky, with the Greek words, Ἐν τούτῳ νίκα ("In this conquer"), written in letters of light. Henceforth his troops marched under a standard called Labarum, the top of which was adorned with a mystic X, representing at once the cross and the initial letter of the Greek word Christ.

Entering Rome in triumph, he began at once to secure his victory. The Prætorian guards were disbanded, and scattered forever. The tax, which Maxentius had occasionally levied on the senate under the name of a free gift, was made lasting. Three of the six emperors now remained. But war soon breaking out between Maximin and Licinius, the former was defeated near Heraclea, and died in a few months at Tarsus, most likely by poison. Two emperors then shared the power between them; Constantine holding the West, and Licinius the East.

313 A.D.

A quarrel soon arose, as might be expected from the nature of the men—Constantine, pushing, clever, and by no means troubled with a tender conscience; Licinius, underhand, artful, dangerous. It made no matter that the sister of Constantine was the wife of Licinius. War was begun. At Cibalis in Pannonia, and on the plain of Mardia in Thrace, Constantine was victorious; and the beaten emperor was compelled to yield, as the price of peace, all his European dominions except Thrace.

There was then peace between the rivals for nearly eight years, during which the most notable event was a war with the Goths and Sarmatians (322). They had long been mustering on the north bank of the Danube, and now poured their swarms upon Illyricum. But they had to deal with a resolute soldier, who drove them with hard and heavy blows back over the broad stream, and followed them into their strongest holds.

Then, in the flush of victory, he turned his sword again upon Licinius. At once all Thrace glittered with arms, and the Hellespont was white with sails. A victory, gained by Constantine at Adrianople, drove the Emperor of the East into Byzantium. Besieged there, he held out a while; but, the passage of the Hellespont being forced by Crispus, Constantine's eldest son, who led a few small ships to attack a great fleet of three-deckers, he was forced into Asia, where he was finally vanquished on the hills of Chrysopolis, now Scutari. In spite of his wife's prayers and tears he was executed a few months later at Thessalonica, when his death left Constantine sole master of the Roman world. **324 A.D.**

This emperor, influenced perhaps by his mother's early teaching, favored Christianity. He did not openly forbid Paganism, but chose rather to work by ridicule and neglect. Some rites he abolished, and some temples he closed, but only those notorious for fraud or indecency. Without depressing Paganism, he raised the new creed to the level of the old. With public money he repaired the old churches and built new ones, so that in every great city the Pagan temples were faced by Christian churches, of architecture richer and more beautiful than ever. The Christian clergy were freed from taxes. Sunday was proclaimed a day of rest. And, to crown all, he removed the seat of government to a new capital, which was essentially a Christian city, for nowhere did a Pagan temple blot the streets, shining with the white marble of Proconnesus.

In the controversies of the Church the emperor took an active but changeable part, and attended in person the first general council of bishops, held at Nicæa, in Bithynia, to decide on the case of Arius, who denied the divinity of Christ. Arius was banished; but, three years afterwards, Constantine, who regarded the whole question as one of slight importance, restored him to his church at Alexandria. **325 A.D.**

The spot where Byzantium had already stood for more than nine hundred years was chosen as the site of the new capital. While besieging Licinius there, Constantine saw how, from that central position, a strong hand, wielding the sceptre of the world, could strike east or west with equal suddenness and force. At the southern end of the Bosphorus a promontory of the Thracian shore—washed on the south by the Sea of Marmora (then called Propontis), and on the north by the fine harbor of the Golden Horn—runs to within six hundred yards of Asia. Seven hills rise there; and on these the city lay, commanding at once two great continents and two great inland seas.

The emperor, spear in hand, heading a long line of nobles, marked out the boundary of the wall. As mile after mile went by, all wondered at the growing space; yet he still went on. "I shall advance," said he, "till the invisible guide who marches before me thinks right to stop."

Gold without stint was lavished on the new buildings. Bronzes and marbles, wrought by the chisels of Phidias and Lysippus, were stolen from Greece and Asia to adorn the public walks. When those senators, whom the gifts and invitations of the emperor had induced to remove from Rome, reached the shores of the Bosphorus, they found waiting to receive them palaces built exactly after the model of those they had left behind. On the day of dedication the city received the name of New Rome; but this title was soon exchanged for that borne ever since—Constantinople. One result of this great change, which reduced Rome to a second-rate city, was to concentrate, for a time, in the old capital, more intensely than ever, all the bitterness of paganism. The new capital soon became the centre of a separate empire, which survived the old for nearly a thousand years.

May 11, 330 A.D.

The new policy of Constantine was marked by three chief features. 1. He scattered titles of nobility with an unsparing hand, so that there was no end of "Illustrious," "Respectable," "Most Honorable," "Most Perfect," "Egregious," men about the court. The Asiatic fashion of piling up adjectives and nouns to make swelling names of honor became all the rage; and on every side was heard, "Your Gravity," or "Your Sincerity," or "Your Sublime and Wonderful Magnitude." 2. He laid direct and heavier taxes upon the people. Forty millions were poured into his treasury every year. These taxes, paid chiefly in gold, but also in kind, were collected by the curials, men high in the magistracy of the towns; and if there was any deficiency, they were compelled to make it up out of their own property. 3. In the army great and fatal changes were made. The military service was separated from the civil government, and placed under the direction of eight masters-general. The famous legions were broken up into small bands. Numbers of Goths and other barbarians

were enlisted in the Roman service, and taught to use arms, which they afterwards turned upon their masters. And a distinction was made between the troops of the court and the troops of the frontier. The latter, bearing all the hard blows, received but scanty rewards; while the former, rejoicing in high pay, and living in cities, among baths and theatres, speedily lost all courage and skill.

The last years of Constantine were occupied with a successful war against the Goths, undertaken in aid of the Sarmatians. Three hundred thousand of the latter nation were settled under Roman protection in Thrace and Macedonia, no doubt to serve as a rampart against the encroachments of other tribes.

Constantine died at Nicomedia, aged sixty-four. He is said to have been baptized on his death-bed by an Arian bishop. According to his own last request, his body was carried over to Constantinople; and, while it lay there on a golden bed, a poor mockery of kingship, crowned and robed in purple, every day, at the usual hour of levee, the great officers of state came to bow before the lifeless clay. **337** A.D.

When we strip away the tinsel with which Eusebius and similar writers have decked the character of this man, we are forced to believe that there was little grand or heroic about him except his military skill. He slew his father-in-law; and, in later days, meanly jealous of justly-won laurels, he hurried his eldest son, the gallant young Crispus, from a gay feast in Rome to die by a secret and sudden death. Many of his strokes of policy were terrible blunders, full of future ruin; and his boasted profession of Christianity seems to have been scarcely better than a mere pretence, made to serve the aims of an unresting and unscrupulous ambition.

ROMAN EMPERORS OF THE FOURTH CENTURY.

	A.D.
CONSTANTIUS AND GALERIUS	305
CONSTANTINE THE GREAT	306
He Sole Emperor	324
CONSTANTINE II., CONSTANS, AND CONSTANTIUS II	337
JULIAN (THE APOSTATE)	361
JOVIAN	363
WEST.	
VALENTINIAN	364
GRATIAN	367
VALENTINIAN II	375
HONORIUS	395
EAST.	
VALENS	364
THEODOSIUS	379
ARCADIUS	395

CHAPTER V.

THE FALL OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE.

Central Point: THE SACK OF ROME BY ALARIC THE GOTH. 410 A.D.

Early life of Julian—His great aim—Death and Character—Goths settled in Thrace—Death of Valens—Reign of Theodosius—Court at Ravenna—Three barbarian chiefs—Alaric the Goth—Britain, Spain, and Gaul lost—Vandals seize Africa—Attila the Hun—Genseric the Vandal—Ricimer—Last days of Pagan Rome—Causes of its fall.

AFTER the confused and bloody reign of the three sons of Constantine, Julian, the apostate, became emperor. He was the nephew of Constantine. Narrowly escaping the massacre by which Constantine cut off so many uncles and cousins, he spent his early life in Asia Minor, where he was educated to be a Christian priest. But his later residence at Athens, where he studied deeply the philosophy of Plato, hardened him into a heathen. He began public life as governor of Gaul. At Lutetia (now Paris) he was saluted *Augustus* by his soldiers; and in the next year became emperor, at the age of thirty (361).

To raise the fallen gods was his great aim; and to this he bent all the energies of no mean mind. He wrote satires against the Christians. He forbade them to teach schools. He shut their churches, and tried to fill the deserted shrines of Venus and Bacchus. But his scorn, and his anger, and his learning, were all thrown away. Amongst other efforts he tried to rebuild the Temple of Jerusalem, in order thus to prove those prophecies false, in which the Christians trusted. But balls of fire, bursting again and again from the earth, drove his workmen from the spot as often as they began to build.

Julian died in the far East. In a skirmish with the Persians a dart struck him in the side, and he expired in his tent next night (363). Though we pity the poor little philosopher, who hugged darkness so obstinately to his soul, while the dayspring from on high was brightening round him, we cannot help laughing at his wretched vanity, when he speaks fondly in one of his books of his frowsy, uncombed hair, long nails, and ink-black hands, as if these were essential marks of genius and learning.

The final division of the empire under Valens and Valentinian has been already noticed. While the former ruled the East, the Goths—most civilized of the German tribes—gained a footing south of the Danube. A host of ugly Calmuc savages, with flat noses, and little, deep-sunk, black eyes, had swept down from the chilly tablelands of Siberia upon the ham-

lets of the Goths, who lived where Moldavia and Wallachia now lie. These were the Huns. First overcoming the Alans—dwellers on the sandy steppes between the Volga and the Tanais (Don)—and filling their ranks with these conquered hordes, they fell upon the Goths, whose leaders were speedily slain or driven back before the rush. In despair the Goths flung themselves on the pity of Valens, asking leave, in the humblest terms, to place the Danube between them and their hideous foes. Leave was granted, on condition that they should give up their children and their arms. The bargain was struck at once; Roman boats were provided; and for many days and nights the broad river was torn into foam by the splash of unceasing oars. The fugitives, surrendering their children with little concern, gladly paid away all they had as bribes to the Roman officers, for leave to keep their arms; and so nearly a million of fierce and hungry warriors settled, sword in hand, within one of the great natural frontiers of the empire. **376** A.D.

Two years afterwards a Gothic army, under Fritigern, one of their judges or leaders, penetrated Thrace, and inflicted a severe defeat on the troops of Valens near Adrianople. The emperor himself, carried bleeding to a cottage close by, was there burnt by these remorseless foes.

Theodosius, a Spaniard by birth, became emperor in 379. Invested by Gratian with the purple of the East, he set himself at once to repel the inroads of the Goths; and in four campaigns, by timely movements from his head-quarters at Thessalonica, he broke—for the time at least—the strength of these barbarians. The leading principle of his policy was to preserve, unbroken, the great frontier line, naturally marked out as the northern boundary of the empire by Mount Caucasus, the Black Sea, the Danube, and the Rhine. He was the first Roman emperor who was baptized in the true Trinitarian faith; and is further remarkable for having put down, by rigorous laws, the last remnants of Paganism, and the Arian heresy, of which Constantinople was the chief seat and centre. But a rash and lawless massacre of the Thessalonians casts a dark blot upon his fame. He died of dropsy at Milan in 395.

Nothing now stood between the Western Empire and ruin. So far back as the days of Maximian, Milan, in the rich plain of northern Italy, had been chosen as an imperial residence. And now, when Arcadius and Honorius, the feeble sons of Theodosius, shared the empire between them, the latter, terrified by the advance of Alaric the Goth, fled to Ravenna, a city on the Adriatic shore, some miles south of the Po, securely guarded by impassable swamps; and there the shrunken and faded glory of the Cæsars flickered for a few miserable years, during which the ancient capital, deserted and unhappy, suffered every imaginable insult.

Alaric the Goth, Attila the Hun, and Genseric the Vandal, were the great leaders of the barbarians who overthrew Rome.

Starting from Thrace in 396, Alaric, a Visigoth of noble race and Christian faith, overran all Greece. The Vandal, Stilicho, the chief of the Roman generals in the West, was sent to oppose him; but the wily Goth escaped into Epirus, where he was hoisted on a shield by his soldiers, according to their national mode of electing a king. There, too,

403 A.D. he received from Arcadius the title, Master-General of Eastern Illyricum. His next move was upon northern Italy. Honorius fled from Milan to Asti, and would have been captured there, but for the rapid advance of Stilicho. The Goths, beaten at Pollentia and Verona, left Italy for a time. But, five years later, they marched, unopposed, to the very walls of Rome. Stilicho, the only match for Alaric, had just been murdered by his senseless master. Famine and plague raged within the city, until the Gothic king, agreeing to accept a ransom, retired to Tuscany, loaded with all the gold, silver, silk, scarlet cloth, and pepper, that could be gathered in Rome. Honorius, secure in Ravenna, refused to save Rome by any concessions; and the Goths, seizing Ostia, at the Tiber's mouth, again summoned the capital to surrender.

This second siege was averted by the citizens agreeing to receive as a new emperor, Attalus, the prefect of the city, who was nominated by Alaric. But this puppet ruler was soon degraded by the same strong hand that had set him up. Then, a band of Goths being cut to pieces near

Aug. 24, 410 A.D. Ravenna, the long-blackening storm at length burst over Rome. In the dead of night hostile trumpets blew for the first time in her sleeping streets. And after six days of bloodshed and pillage, the clumsy baggage-waggons of Alaric went creaking southward along the Appian way, piled high with the richest spoils of Rome. All southern Italy was soon subdued; but, before the conquering hordes could pass into Sicily, their leader died at Cozenza in Calabria. To make his grave a river was turned aside; and when the water was again let flow into its bed over the dead king, the prisoners who had built his tomb were slain, that no one might be able to tell where the conqueror of Rome was laid.

And now the great Western Empire was dissolving fast. Early in the fifth century three fragments broke off from the decaying trunk, not to die, but to start up with new and fresher life into three great kingdoms. Britain was left to itself. Spain was conquered by Sueves, Alans, and Vandals. Gaul was filled with Goths, Burgundians, and Franks. Adolph, brother-in-law of Alaric, marched under the colors of Honorius, whose sister he had married, to rescue Spain; but he was murdered at Barcelona.

Africa, too, was lost. The Roman general Boniface, revolting from

Valentinian III., called Genseric and his Vandals over from Spain. Crossing the strait in Spanish vessels, the barbarian leader reviewed a motley force of fifty thousand on the Moorish plains. Vandals, Alans, Goths, were all there. Tawny Moors, who at first had looked on the white faces with fear, gradually joined their ranks. And the Donatists, a religious sect, writhing under persecution, gladly welcomed a protector in the Arian Genseric. Boniface, repenting of his haste only when it was too late, saw with dismay all the rich wheat-fields, upon which Rome depended mainly for her bread, laid waste from Tangier to Tripoli. In 431 Hippo Regius, a sea-port now called Bona, was burnt. Boniface, sailing to Italy, fell in battle with his rival Aëtius. Carthage yielded to Genseric in 439; and soon African exiles were seen all through Italy and the East.

Meanwhile Attila, a genuine Hun, with ugly face and strong squat frame, had gone forth from his log-house on the plain of Hungary at the head of half a million savages, to conquer the world. Westward to the Rhine, northward to the Baltic, eastward far beyond the Caspian, the terror of his name spread fast; and ere long we find him in the suburbs of Constantinople, dictating insulting terms of peace to the trembling Theodosius II. (446). A year or two later, after the Huns had gone home, an embassy was sent over the Danube by the court of Constantinople to visit Attila in his wooden palace. Among them was an assassin, secretly charged to murder the royal Hun; and this was the real business of the embassy. Though the treacherous design was detected, they were entertained with barbaric splendor, and the would-be murderer was dismissed with contempt.

In 450 Attila sent to both emperors the haughty message, "Attila commands thee to prepare a palace for his reception." Marcian, Emperor of the East, from whom arrears of tribute were also demanded, replied with spirit, "I have gold for my friends, and steel for my enemies." And so the Hun, preferring to begin with the easier task, fell upon the West. Honoria, a disgraced sister of Valentinian, maddened by her tedious banishment to Constantinople, had before this sent him a ring, praying him to claim her as his wife, and set her free. Seizing this pretext, he demanded in her name half of the Western Empire, which was of course refused. Then gathering his Huns round him, he crossed the Rhine, pierced to the centre of Gaul, and began to shake the walls of Orleans with his battering-rams. Terror filled the town, until clouds of dust on the horizon marked the quick advance of a Roman and Gothic army under Aëtius and Theodoric. Attila retreated at once to the plain of Chalons; and there was fought one of the decisive battles of the world, resulting in the defeat of the Huns. Thus worsted in Gaul, Attila climbed the Alps into Italy. Aquileia and other cities

451 A.D.

were laid in heaps. Milan and Pavia were robbed, but left standing; and when the Hun was preparing to march upon Rome, Bishop Leo came with offers from the emperor to give up the required dowry or its value in money. Awestruck by the majesty of the priest, and remembering, no doubt, that his soldiers were becoming unstrung by the luxury of Italian life, and that the active Aëtius was threatening him at every move, he agreed to return to Hungary, where soon afterwards he broke a blood-vessel. So died one, whose savage boast it was that grass never grew on a spot where his horse had trodden (453). His great empire, torn by intestine wars, and pressed on by hordes of Ugri and Avars from Mount Ural, then fell to pieces.

While Attila was threatening Rome on the north, Genseric, who was in alliance with the Hun, had cut down the woods of Mount Atlas, and built a fleet. Sweeping the Mediterranean, he conquered Sicily, made frequent descents upon the Italian coasts, and in 455, at the invitation of Eudoxia, who had been forced to marry Maximus, he cast anchor at the mouth of the Tiber. The purple, still called imperial, though sadly torn and bedraggled, had then been worn by Maximus for about three months. While the Vandals were advancing from Ostia to Rome, Bishop Leo, remembering his influence over Attila, came out to meet them

455 A.D. at the head of his clergy. But this could not save the city now. For fourteen days Vandals and Moors wrecked and pillaged without mercy. Exquisite bronzes were melted down; glorious works of sculpture and architecture were wantonly dashed to pieces. Shiploads of treasure and crowds of captives were carried over the sea to Carthage.

Why should we dwell on the sad story? For sixteen years (456–472) all real power rested with Ricimer, a barbarian soldier, who, during that time, set up four emperors. There was a gleam of hope when Majorian, first of these, made good laws, and relieved the pressure of the taxes; but it faded in 461, when he died. Then came a time of worse perplexity and terror. In 472, forty days before his death, Ricimer sacked Rome. Three more inglorious names were added to the roll of emperors, that of Romulus Augustulus closing the list. He was a handsome youth, but he was nothing more; and when Odoacer, a Goth of the tribe Heruli, came at the head of the Italian soldiers, threatening him in

476 A.D. Ravenna, he yielded ignobly, content to retire to the villa of Lucullus at Misenum with a pension of six thousand pieces of gold. Then, "when Odoacer was proclaimed king of Italy, the phantom assembly, which still called itself the Roman Senate, sent back to Constantinople the tiara and purple robe, in sign that the Western Empire had passed away." *

* White's Eighteen Christian Centuries.

The division of the empire has been blamed as a great cause of this catastrophe; but truer causes were the oppression of its own unwieldy weight and the canker of vicious luxury that had long been eating away the strength of its inner life. An empire, thus doubly enfeebled, with patched and rotten barriers, could not long withstand the unceasing tide of hardy tribes that came pouring, wave upon wave, from the swamps and forests of the north.

THE LAST EMPERORS OF ROME.

	A.D.
HONORIUS	
VALENTINIAN III	425
MAXIMUS	455
AVITUS	456
MAJORIAN	457
LIBIUS SEVERUS	461
ANTHEMIUS	467
OLYBIUS	472
GLYCERIUS	473
JULIUS NEPOS	474
ROMULUS AUGUSTULUS	475–6

CHAPTER VI.

DOMESTIC LIFE IN IMPERIAL ROME.

Roman houses—Furniture—Slaves—Male dress—Female dress—Meals and food—Manner of eating—Garlands and wine—Baths—Travelling—Chariot races—Gladiators—In-door games—Books and letters—Marriage—Funeral rites.

A GOOD idea of a first-class Roman house may be got by visiting the Pompeiian Court in the Crystal Palace at Sydenham. The principal apartments were on the ground-floor. Passing through the unroofed *vestibule*, often between rows of graceful statues, a visitor entered the house through a doorway ornamented with ivory, tortoise-shell, and gold. On the threshold, worked in mosaic marble, was the kind word, "*Salve;*" while behind the door, where the porter sat, was a dog, or its picture, with the warning, "*Cave canem.*" Then came the *atrium*, or great central reception-room, separated from its wings by lines of pillars. Here were placed the ancestral images; and here, too, was the *focus*, a family fireplace dedicated to the Lares. In the centre of this, or perhaps of an inner hall, was a cistern, into which the rain plashed through an opening in the roof. Further in lay a large saloon called the *peristyle*, while

smaller rooms for eating and sleeping were placed according to fancy or convenience. The floor, though sometimes boarded, was generally a mosaic of colored marble, tiles, or glass; the walls, whitewashed in the old simple days of the early Republic, were now carved and painted, or perhaps glittered with costly mirrors; gilt and colored stucco-work adorned the ceilings; while the window-frames were filled with talc or glass. On the roofs were gardens, bright with leaf and blossom.

In houses like these might be found ivory bedsteads, with quilts of purple and gold; tables of precious wood—cedar, citron, or cypress—supported on marble pedestals; side-boards of gold and silver, loaded with plate; amber vases, beakers of Corinthian bronze, and glass vessels from Alexandria, whose tints rivalled the opal and the ruby.

The household work was done by slaves of various classes. In earlier times a few sufficed; but in the days of the Empire it was thought a disgrace not to have a slave for every separate kind of work. And so, besides those who managed the purse, the cellar, the bed-rooms, and the kitchen, there were slaves to carry the litter, or to attend as their masters walked abroad. Some, of higher pretensions, were physicians, secretaries, and readers. Then, for amusement, there were musicians, dancers, buffoons, and even idiots. But all may be ranked under two heads—bought slaves, and born slaves. There was a slave-market, in which the common sort were sold like cattle; but the more beautiful or valuable were disposed of by private bargain in the taverns. Prices ranged from £4 to £800.

The most remarkable garment of the Romans was the *toga*, made of pure white wool, and in shape resembling a segment of a circle; narrow at first, it was folded, so that one arm rested as in a sling; but in later days it was draped in broad, flowing folds round the breast and left arm, leaving the right nearly bare. Though its use in the streets was in later times exchanged for a mantle of warm, colored cloth, called *pallium*, or *lacerna*, yet it continued to be the Roman full-dress; and in the theatre, when the emperor was present, all were expected to wear it. The later emperors wore *braccae*, or loose trousers tied about the ankle—a fashion borrowed from the barbarians. These were commonly crimson; but Alexander Severus wore white. The Romans always kept the head uncovered, except on a journey, or when they wished to escape notice. Then they wore a dark-colored hood, which was fastened to the *lacerna*. In the house *soleae* were strapped to the bare feet; but abroad the *calceus*, nearly resembling our shoe, was commonly worn. On the gold-finger, the fourth of the left hand, every Roman of rank had a massive signet-ring. There were fops who loaded every finger with jewels; and we are told of one poor fellow who was so far gone in foppery, as to have a set of lighter

rings for summer wear, when his delicate frame could not bear the weight of his winter jewels.

The dress of Roman ladies consisted of three parts—an inner *tunic*, the *stola*, and the *palla*. The *stola*, which was the distinctive dress of Roman matrons, was a tunic with short sleeves, girt round the waist, and ending in a deep flounce, which swept the instep. The *palla*, a gay-colored mantle, was worn out of doors. It was often sky-blue, sprinkled with golden stars. The brightest colors were chosen; so that an assembly of Roman *belles*, in full dress, was a brilliant scene, sparkling with scarlet and yellow, purple and pale green. The hair, encircled with a garland of roses, was fastened with a gold pin. Pearls and gold adorned the neck and arms. A favorite bracelet was a golden serpent with ruby eyes, such as may be seen on many a white arm in our own drawing-rooms.

To many, in the degenerate ages of Rome, the great ends of life were to eat the most delicious food, and to eat of it as much as possible. Gluttony had grown upon the people from their intercourse with Asia. Roman meals were three—*jentaculum*, *prandium*, and *coena*. *Jentaculum*, taken soon after rising, consisted of bread, dried grapes or olives, cheese, and perhaps milk and eggs. At *prandium*, the mid-day meal, they partook of fish, eggs, and dishes cold or warmed up from last night's supper. Then, too, some wine was drunk. But *coena* was the principal meal, taken about the ninth hour, and on the whole corresponding to our dinner. It began with eggs, fish, and light vegetables, such as radishes and lettuces, served up with tasty sauces, all being intended merely to whet the appetite for the more substantial dishes to follow. Then came the courses (*fercula*), of which, in all their wonderful variety, no just idea can be given here. Among fish, turbot, sturgeon, and red mullet, were greatly prized; among birds, the peacock, pheasant, woodcock, thrush, and fig-pecker. The favorite flesh-meat was young pork; but venison was also in great demand. The courses were followed by a dessert of pastry and fruit.

While eating, the Romans reclined upon low couches, which were arranged in the form *triclinium*, making three sides of a square. The open space was left for the slaves to place or remove the dishes. The place of honor was on the middle bench. In later times round tables became common, and then semi-circular couches were used. There were no table-cloths; but the guests wore over the breast a linen napkin (*mappa*), which they brought with them. Instead of knives and forks two spoons were used—one, *cochlear*, small and pointed at the end of the handle; the other, *ligula*, larger, and of uncertain shape. The splendor of a Roman feast was greatly marred by the oil-lamps, the only light then used. The lamps themselves were exquisite in shape and material,

as were all the table utensils, but the dripping oil soaked the table, while the thick smoke blackened the walls and ceiling, and rested in flakes of soot upon the dresses of the guests.

At feasts, instead of the *toga*, short dresses, of red or other bright colors, were worn. Before the drinking began, chaplets were handed round. For these, roses, myrtle, violets, ivy, and even parsley were used. Before they were put on, slaves anointed the hair with nard and other sweet unguents. Wine was almost the only drink used. Before being brought to table it was generally strained through a metal sieve or linen bag filled with snow, and was called black or white according to its color, just as we talk of red and white wines. The famous Falernian was of a bright amber tint. Besides pure wine they drank *mulsum*, a mixture of new wine with honey, and *calda*, answering to our negus, made of warm water, wine, and spice.

The Romans spent much time in their splendid baths. The cold plunge in the Tiber, which had braced the iron muscles of their ancestors, gave place, under the Empire, to a most luxurious and elaborate system of tepid and vapor bathing, often repeated seven and eight times a day. At the baths the gossip of the day was exchanged, as was done in English coffee-houses a hundred years ago, and as is now done in our clubs and news-rooms.

Their many slaves enabled the Romans to travel luxuriously. The favorite conveyance was a wooden palanquin (*lectica*) with leathern curtains, within which the traveller lay soft on mattress and pillows. They had cabs and carriages—as many, if not so elegant, as ours; and there was no want of hack vehicles and post-horses. Inns were used chiefly by the lower classes; for, except in cases of necessity, respectable travellers lodged at the houses of private friends.

The theatre, with its tragedies and comedies, the circus, and the amphitheatre, supplied the Romans with their chief public amusements. At the circus they betted on their favorite horses or charioteers; at the amphitheatre they revelled in the bloody combats of gladiators. Four chariots generally started together. The drivers, distinguished by dresses of different colors, stood in the cars, leaning back, with the reins passed round their bodies, and a sharp knife in the belt to cut the thong if anything went wrong. On they whirled amid clouds of dust, seven times round the course, shaving the goal amid the thunders of the excited crowd. A large sum of money was generally the prize.

The most brutal of all Roman pastimes were the gladiatorial combats. At the trumpet's sound throngs of wretched men—captives, slaves, or convicted criminals—closed in deadly strife. The trodden sand soon grew red; yet on they fought with parched lips and leaping hearts, for they

knew that a brave fight might win for them their freedom. Ere long hacked and bleeding limbs began to fail, and dim eyes turned to seek for mercy along the crowded seats. There were times when the dumb prayer was answered, and the down-turned thumbs of the spectators gave the signal for sparing life; but too often mercy was sought in vain, and the sword completed its work. Combats of gladiators with wild beasts often took place. Whole armies sometimes thronged the scene. When Trajan triumphed after his victories in Dacia, ten thousand gladiators were exhibited at once. Another great public sight was the triumph of a victor. And here, too, blood must stream, else the pageant lost its zest. When the glittering files reached the slope of Capitolinus, the conquered leaders were led aside and slain.

Among many games of exercise, playing at ball was a favorite. Within doors, much time and money were squandered at dice. Other more innocent amusements were various board-games, depending chiefly on skill, and resembling a good deal our chess and backgammon.

Roman books were rolls of papyrus-bark or parchment, written upon with a reed-pen, dipped in lampblack or sepia. The back of the sheet was often stained with saffron, and its edges were rubbed smooth and blackened, while the ends of the stick on which it was rolled were adorned with knobs of ivory or gilt wood. Letters were etched with a sharp iron instrument (*stilus*) upon thin wooden tablets, coated with wax. These were then tied up with linen thread, the knot being sealed with wax and stamped with a ring.

The Romans had three forms of marriage, of which the highest was called *confarreatio*. The bride, dressed in a white robe with purple fringe, and covered with a bright yellow veil, was escorted by torch-light to her future home. A cake (*far*) was carried before her, and she bore a distaff and spindle with wool. Arrived at the flower-wreathed portal, she was lifted over the threshold, lest—omen of evil—her foot might stumble on it. Her husband then brought fire and water, which she touched; and, seated on a sheepskin, she received the keys of the house. A marriage supper closed the ceremony.

Great pomp marked the funeral rites of the nobler Romans. The bier was preceded by a long procession of trumpeters, female dirge-singers, and even buffoons, all clad in black. It was only under the later emperors that white became the fashion for female mourning. In the *Forum*, under the *Rostra*, the bier was set down, a funeral oration was delivered, and then the gloomy lines wound slowly on to the burial-place. When, as was common in earlier times, the body was burned, the bones were carefully gathered and preserved in an urn. But in later days the custom of burying in a coffin was more frequently followed.

GREAT NAMES OF THE SECOND PERIOD.

LIVY, born 59 B.C. at Padua—died 17 A. D.—lived much at Rome—a great historian—chief work, "History of Rome up to 9 B. C.," originally published in 142 vols.—only 35 now extant.

OVID, born at Sulmo 43 B. C.—a poet, works licentious—his "Metamorphoses" are well known—banished by Augustus 8 A. D.—died at Tomi, near the Euxine, 18 A. D.

PERSIUS, born 34 A. D. in Etruria—chief works, "Six Satires and a Prologue"—died at about 30 years of age.

SENECA, born shortly before Christ at Cordova—a philosopher—tutor of Nero, by whose orders he bled himself to death—author of "Physical Questions," "Epistles," and, some say, ten Tragedies.

LUCAN, born at Cordova 38 A. D.—only extant work, his poem of "Pharsalia"—like Seneca, sentenced as a conspirator against Nero to bleed himself to death, 65 A. D.

PLINY (Elder), born 23 A. D.—a distinguished naturalist—once procurator of Spain—suffocated during an eruption of Vesuvius, 79 A. D.

PLINY (Younger), born at Comum 62 or 63—proconsul of Bithynia—a great friend of Tacitus—chief works, "Epistles" and "Panegyric on Trajan."

QUINTILIAN, born perhaps in North Spain—a teacher of rhetoric at Rome—chief work, "Institutes of Oratory."

TACITUS, born in Nero's reign—a great historian—son-in-law of Agricola, whose life he wrote—author of "Annals," giving Roman history from death of Augustus to death of Nero; and also a work on Germany.

SUETONIUS, born about Nero's reign—author of many historical works—only complete work extant, "Lives of the Twelve Cæsars."

JUVENAL, born about 40 A. D.—a great satiric poet—his satires not published till his old age—little known of his life.

GALEN, born in 131 at Pergamum—a great anatomist and medical writer—studied at Alexandria, and practised at Rome—137 of his works extant.

TERTULLIAN, born at Carthage in A. D. 160, died A. D. 220—first of the Latin writers of the Church—chief work, "His Apology for Christians," written about 198.

ORIGEN, born in Egypt 185 or 186—at first head of the catechetical school at Alexandria—editor and commentator of the Scriptures—supposed to have died at Tyre, aged 69.

CYPRIAN, Archbishop of Carthage in middle of third century—martyred under Valerian, 258—chief work, "Unity of the Church."

AMBROSE, born about 340 in Gaul—Archbishop of Milan—a great foe of Arianism—chief work, "De Officiis"—died 397.

EUSEBIUS PAMPHILUS, born in Palestine about 264—Bishop of Cæsarea—probably tainted with Arianism—chief works, "Ecclesiastical and Universal History," and "Life of Constantine"—died 338.

ATHANASIUS, born at Alexandria in end of third century—Patriarch of Alexandria, 328—a great foe of Arianism, for opposing which he was deposed and banished—wrongly called author of the Athanasian Creed.

GREGORY NAZIANZEN, born early in fourth century in Cappadocia—for some time assistant to his father, Bishop of Nazianzus—afterwards for a while Patriarch of Constantinople—noted as a writer of theology and religious poetry.

CHRYSOSTOM, (Gold-mouth, from his eloquence)—born at Antioch 354—Patriarch of Constantinople 397—his works contain valuable illustrations of life in the fourth and fifth centuries.

JEROME, born in 340 in Dalmatia—especially learned in Hebrew—founder of Monasticism—chief work, a translation of the Bible into the Latin version, called the Vulgate; wrote also Commentaries and Lives of the Fathers—died 420.

AUGUSTINE, born in Numidia 354—Bishop of Hippo—taught rhetoric for a while—the great foe of Pelagius—chief works, "On the Grace of Christ," "Original Sin," and his own life, in the form of "Confessions"—died 430.

THIRD PERIOD.

FROM THE FALL OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE TO THE ACCESSION OF CHARLEMAGNE.

CHAPTER I.

THE AGE OF JUSTINIAN.

Central Point: THE ROMAN LAW SIMPLIFIED, 529 A.D. to 533 A.D.

Theodoric the Ostrogoth—Clovis the Frank—Accession of Justinian—Conquest of Africa—Belisarius besieged in Rome—Conquers Italy—His disgrace—Again in Italy—His last days—Narses destroys the Ostrogothic kingdom—Legislation of Justinian—The riot Nika—Justinian's character—The Lombard invasion—Alboin, King of Italy.

ODOACER held the throne of Italy until 493, when he perished at Ravenna by the sword of Theodoric the Ostrogoth. Under the wise rule of the victor, whose chief adviser was the learned Cassiodorus, Italy revived. A waste and ruined land was soon loaded with purple grapes and yellow corn. Fair buildings rose. Once more gold and iron were dug from the earth. Romans and Ostrogoths lived in peace and plenty, although a broad line, jealously preserved by the policy of Theodoric, kept them apart. The fair-haired Goths, still wearing their furs and brogues, carried the sword; while the Romans, wrapped in the flowing toga, held the pen and filled the schools. So passed three and thirty years, until Theodoric died in 526, and then frightful scenes of blood were enacted over his fallen throne.

Some time before Theodoric's descent upon Italy, a Frank, called Chlodwig or Clovis (the name was afterwards softened into Louis), crossed the Somme, and drove pell-mell before him Romans, Burgundians, and Visigoths, never resting until his dominion stretched from the delta of the Rhine to the Pyrenees. During his career of victory he was baptized a Christian at Rheims in 496. Soon afterwards he fixed his capital at Paris, where he died in 511. The old church is still pointed out, in which this founder of the French monarchy was buried. It is worth remembering that Theodoric married the sister of Clovis.

During these events young Justinian was growing up in Constantinople.

An uncle, Justin, a stalwart peasant of Dacia, enlisting in early life among the guards of Leo, had risen to be emperor of the East. By him Justinian was educated, adopted, and, in 527, crowned.

Belisarius soon became the foremost name of the age. The first laurels of this great general were won in Persia; he was then chosen to lead an expedition against the Vandals of Africa. Landing there, within the same month he led his troops into Carthage, which blazed with torches of welcome. Gelimer, the Vandal king, after a vain attempt to retrieve his fortunes, fled to the Numidian mountains, but was soon starved into a surrender, and carried to Constantinople, to grace the victor's triumph. Among the spoils were the vessels of the Jewish Temple, which, carried to Rome by Titus, had been brought to Carthage by the pirate Genseric, and were now placed in the Christian church at Jerusalem.

Sept. 533 A.D.

But the greatest achievement of Belisarius was the conquest of Italy, by which, for a short time, the East and the West were re-united under one sovereign. The subdual of Sicily, the capture of Naples and of Rome, mark the steps of victory by which he drove the Goths northward before him. Mustering the whole strength of their nation at Ravenna, under their king Vitiges, they marched to besiege Belisarius in Rome. And then the genius of this great commander shone with its brightest lustre. In the first assault the Goths were nearly successful; but Belisarius, fighting dusty and blood-stained in the front of the battle, turned back the tide of war. After many days of busy preparation, another grand assault was made. Hastily the walls were manned; and, as the giant lines came on, Belisarius himself, shooting the first arrow, pierced the foremost leader. A second shaft, from the same true hand, laid another low. And then a whole cloud, aimed only at the oxen which drew the towers and siege-train towards the wall, brought the attacking army to a complete stand-still. It was a decided check; and, though the siege dragged on for more than a year, every effort of the Goths was met and foiled with equal skill. So hot was the defence at times, that matchless statues were often broken up, and hurled from the wall upon the Goths below. About the middle of the siege, the Pope Sylverius, convicted of having sent a letter to the Goths, promising to open one of the gates to them, was banished from the city.

536 A.D.

And at last the besiegers, worn out with useless toil, burnt their tents and fell back to Ravenna, where, before long, they yielded to the triumphant Illyrian, at whose feet all Italy then lay. Milan, a city second only to Rome, had been destroyed the year before by a host of Franks, who rushed down from the Alps to aid the Goths, and enrich themselves with the plunder of the plain.

539 A.D.

Through all these brilliant achievements Belisarius had been greatly vexed and hampered by intriguing rivals, especially the ambitious Narses. And now his star began to pale. In two campaigns (541–42), he drove back over the Euphrates the Persian king Nushirvan, who had ruined Antioch, and was planning a raid upon Jerusalem. A report having reached the camp that Justinian was dying, the general let fall some rash words, which implied that the Empress Theodora—once an actress of most wicked life—was unworthy to succeed to the throne. For this he was recalled, disgraced, and heavily fined, his life being spared only for the sake of his profligate wife Antonina, who was then in high favor with the empress.

Sent to Italy again in 544 to oppose Totilas, a brave and clever Goth, who was making manful efforts to restore the empire of Theodoric, Belisarius was forced to stand idly by with insufficient forces while the Goths took Rome, having reduced the citizens to feed on mice and nettles (546). He recovered the city in a month or two, and then held out against every attack; but during the remainder of his stay in Italy his strength was frittered away in the south of the peninsula, where Totilas pressed him hard. At length, in 548, he got leave to return home.

Then, having narrowly escaped murder, he lived in private until 559, when he was called into the field to meet an inroad of Bulgarians, who, coming originally from Mount Ural, had crossed the frozen Danube, and were now only twenty miles from Constantinople. The stout old soldier, having beaten back the savages, came home to be treated coldly, and dismissed without thanks. Soon after, accused of plotting to murder the emperor, he was stripped of all his wealth, and imprisoned in his own house. His freedom was restored, but the death-blow had been given; he lived only eight months longer. We are all familiar with the bent figure of a blind old man, begging for alms in the streets, though he was once the great general, Belisarius, conqueror of Africa and Italy. Painters and poets have seized eagerly on the romantic story; but it is doubted by most historians.*

It was left for Narses, purse-bearer to Justinian, the rival and successor of Belisarius, to destroy the Ostrogothic kingdom in Italy. Lombards, Heruli, and Huns following his banner, he defeated and slew Totilas at Tadinae in 552, and then occupied Rome, which was taken and retaken five times during the reign of Justinian. But his task was not finished until Teias, last of the Ostrogothic kings, fell at the foot of
553 Vesuvius. Most of the surviving Ostrogoths were then allowed
A.D. to leave Italy with part of their wealth. And thus, having held

* Lord Mahon, in his Life of Belisarius, defends the story. It rests entirely upon the authority of a writer of the eleventh century.

the peninsula for sixty years, they pass from our sight. Narses, having then repelled a swarm of Franks and Alemanni, who ravaged Italy from north to south, was made the first Exarch of Ravenna, and continued for many years to rule with prudence and vigor.

It is now time we should turn to the greatest glory of Justinian's reign—his reduction of Roman law to a simple and condensed system. For centuries the laws had been multiplying. Every decree of every emperor—even heedless words spoken by the veriest fool or blackest villain in that most chequered line from Adrian to Justinian—became a binding law. Nobody could know the law, for on any point there might be a dozen contradictory decisions. Justinian set himself, with the aid of Tribonian, and other learned men, to work this chaos into order. His system consists of four great parts: 1. The *Code*, a condensation of all earlier systems, was first published in 529. 2. Not less valuable were the *Institutes*, a volume treating of the elements of Roman law, intended for students, and published in 533. 3. In the same year appeared the *Digest*, or *Pandects* (the latter word means "comprising all"), which, in fifty volumes, gave the essence of the Roman jurisprudence. This great work was finished in three years; and some idea of the cutting-down found needful may be gathered from the fact, that three millions of sentences were reduced to one hundred and fifty thousand. 4. The *Novels* embraced the new laws issued by Justinian himself.

During all this reign the old rivalry between the Blue and Green factions of the Circus convulsed the capital. It reached a crisis in 532, when a destructive riot, called *Nika* (Victory) from the watchword of the combatants, raged for five days. Blues and Greens united against the emperor, who was on the point of fleeing, when the firmness of his wife restrained him. The Blues returned to their allegiance; and the blood of thirty thousand of their wretched foes soaked the sand of the Hippodrome. The secret of silk-making, which had been jealously guarded by the Chinese, was now made known to Europe by two monks, who brought the eggs of the silkworm from the East, hidden in a hollow cane. Justinian adorned his capital with twenty-five churches, of which the chief was St. Sophia, gleaming with gems and many-colored marble. In 541 the Roman Consulship—once the world's proudest dignity, but long since dwindled into an empty title—ceased to exist; it was not, however, till three centuries later, that the "grand old name" was abolished by law.

Justinian died in 565, aged eighty-three. Leaving no heirs, he was succeeded by his nephew, Justin II. He was active, temperate, good-natured; but the slave of an imperious and vicious wife. In his religious views he was capricious and intolerant; in early days a persecutor of heresy—in old age himself a heretic.

The last great wave now rolled from the North. The Longobards, or Lombards, taking their name probably from their long spears (*bardi*), began to move towards the Danube. The Avars, a wandering race of archers, driven from their home on Mount Ural by the Turks of the Caspian, joined the tumultuous march. Together they fell upon the Gepidae of the Danube. The king of the ill-fated tribe was slain, and his skull made into a drinking-cup by Alboin, the Lombard chief, who then married the daughter of the dead man. Leaving his conquests to the Avars,

568 A.D. Alboin crossed the Alps, overran the fruitful plain ever since called Lombardy, and was there raised on a shield as King of Italy. He was soon murdered at the instigation of Rosamund, his wife, whom, we are told, he forced, at a public banquet, to drink out of her father's skull. Cleph, the next king, in a reign of eighteen months, extended his dominions as far south as Beneventum. Then came a gap of ten years, during which the thirty-six Lombard Dukes, among whom the conquered parts of the peninsula had been divided, ruled with remorseless cruelty. But monarchy was restored in 586 in the person of Autharis; and for about two hundred years the Lombard Kings and the Exarchs of Ravenna, who represented the Byzantine or Eastern Empire, held Italy between them.

EASTERN EMPERORS OF THE SIXTH CENTURY.

	A.D.
Anastasius	
Justin I.	518
Justinian I	527
Justin II.	565
Tiberius II.	578
Maurice	582

CHAPTER II.

THE GROWTH OF THE PAPACY.

Central Point: GREGORY'S LETTER TO THE PATRIARCH OF CONSTANTINOPLE, 595 A.D.

The Martyr Popes—Christianity a Greek Worship—Appeal to Bishop of Rome—Three great founders of Papacy—Innocent and Alaric—Pelagianism—Leo I.—Jerome, Ambrose, Augustine—Conversion of Barbarians—Gregory the Great—His letter to John—Origin of Pope's temporal Power.

Our knowledge of the Papacy in its earliest days is very dim and uncertain. Peter, the fisherman of Galilee, who, as tradition relates, was crucified with his head downwards about 66 A. D., is claimed by the advocates

of the Papal system, but without a shadow of historical proof, as first Bishop of Rome. No doubt for many a day the Bishops of Rome were humble dwellers in a mean suburb, scouted as Jews, and despised as the apostles of some wild Eastern heresy by the magnificent priesthood of Jupiter and Apollo; and, when they did gain a place in the public eye, it was as noble witnesses for the truth, sealing their faith with their blood. Out of thirty Roman bishops of the first three centuries, nineteen suffered martyrdom. Thus, cradled in darkness and baptized in blood, the great power of the imperial see struggled through the years of its infancy.

At first the history of the Roman Church is identical with the history of Christian truth. But, unhappily, there came a time when streams of poison began to flow from the once pure fountain.

Before the close of the first century, Christian churches were scattered over all the known world. These were at first essentially Greek in their language, their Scriptures, and their forms of worship. It was in Africa —where, about 200, flourished Tertullian, first of the great Fathers who wrote in Latin—that Latin Christianity may be said to have had its birth. But Rome, being the centre of the civilized world, the Christian communities everywhere began naturally to look to the Roman Bishop as a leader in the Church.

A great step in this direction was taken, when, at the Council of Sardica, in 343, the right of appeal to the Bishop of Rome was, though at first probably only as a temporary expedient, formally conceded. In the time of Damasus, the bishopric had become a prize worth contesting, and blood flowed freely during the election. **366** A. D.
Year after year consolidated and extended the power of this central see, although a powerful rival had sprung up on the Bosphorus.

Innocent I., Leo I., and Gregory the Great, were the three great founders of the Papacy.

While Honorius was disgracing the name of emperor, Innocent began his Pontificate.* It was soon clear from his letters to the bishops in the West, that he was bent on claiming for the see of Rome a complete supremacy in all matters of discipline and usage. In the midst of his efforts to secure this end, a terrible event occurred, which had the effect of investing him with a grandeur unknown to his predecessors. Alaric and his Goths besieged Rome. Honorius was trembling **Innocent I. 402-417** A. D.

* The name Pontiff, from the Pontifex Maximus, the chief officer of the Pagan Roman hierarchy.

amid the swamps of Ravenna; but Innocent was within the walls of the capital; and, deserted by her emperor, Rome centred all hope in her bishop. A ransom bought off the enemy for a while; and, when, soon after, the great disaster of wreck and pillage fell upon the city, Innocent was absent in Ravenna, striving to stir the coward emperor to some show of manliness. He returned to evoke from the black ashes of Pagan Rome the temples of a Christian city. Thenceforward the pope was the greatest man in Rome.

In the latter days of Innocent, the great heresy of Pelagius began to agitate the West. This man was a Briton, who passed through Rome, Africa, and Palestine, preaching that there was no original sin; that men, having perfect free will, could keep all Divine commands, by the power of nature, unaided by grace. These doctrines were combated by Augustine, Bishop of Hippo, in Africa, one of the great Fathers of the Church, whose opinions soon became the standard of orthodoxy throughout the West. Innocent, leaning towards Augustine, declared Pelagius a heretic, but death prevented him from doing more. By Zozimus, the next pope, Pelagius was banished, and of his end nothing is known.

Leo I., a Roman by birth, was unanimously raised to the popedom in 440. Distinguished for his stern dealings with heretics, and his energetic efforts to extend the spiritual dominion of Rome, he yet, like Innocent I., owes his great place in history to the bold front he twice showed to the barbarians menacing Rome. The savage Attila was turned away by his majestic remonstrance; and although his intercession with Genseric the Vandal, three years later, had less avail, it yet broke the force of the blow that fell on the hapless city.

Leo I.
440-461
A. D.

While the Papacy was thus laying the deep foundations of its authority, a host of active intellects were busy moulding its doctrines and discipline into shape. Chief among these were Jerome, Ambrose, and Augustine. Jerome, the secretary of Pope Damasus, and afterwards a monk of Bethlehem, gave the first great impulse to that monastic system which has been so powerful an agent in spreading the doctrines of Popery. Ambrose, Archbishop of Milan, vindicated the authority of the priesthood even over emperors and kings, by condemning Theodosius I. to a long and weary penance for his massacre of the Thessalonians. Augustine, already noticed, is justly called the Father of the Latin Theology.

It must not be forgotten that the barbarians, who overthrew the Roman Empire, had already, with few exceptions, been converted to Christianity. The Goths were the first to receive the gospel; other tribes followed in quick succession, for the Teutonic character had, even in its barbaric

phase, a groundwork of deep thoughtfulness, which secured a ready acceptance for Christianity. And when the barbaric flood had swept away every vestige of Roman temporal power, the Papacy, cherished by that very destroying power, continued to grow, gathering every year new strength and life—a new Rome rising from the ashes of the old, far mightier than the vanished empire, for it claimed dominion over the spirits of men. In Gregory the Great, who became pope in 590, we behold the third great founder of the Papacy, and the fourth of the great Fathers of Latin Christianity. He it was, who, while yet a humble monk of St. Andrew, being struck with the beauty of some English boys in the Roman slave market, formed the design of sending a mission to Britain; and some years afterwards despatched Augustine to these shores. All the West felt his energy. Spain, Africa, and Britain, were brought within the pale of the Church, while Jews and heretics were treated with mild toleration. A notable fact of this Pontificate was Gregory's letter to John, Patriarch of Constantinople, who openly claimed the title of Universal Bishop. Gregory branded it as a blasphemous name, once applied, in honor of St. Peter, by the Council of Chalcedon to the Roman Bishop, but by all succeeding pontiffs rejected as injurious to the rest of the priesthood.

Gregory I. **590-604** A. D. **595** A. D.

War with the Lombards filled Gregory's hands with troubles; but in no long time these fierce warriors felt a power, against which their swords were worthless, casting its spells over them. In the days of Gregory they were converted from being heathens, or at best, reckless Arians, to orthodox Christianity. He died in 604, leaving a name, as priest, ruler, and writer, second to none in the long roll of popes.

One hundred and fifty years later, when Pepin the Short made Pope Stephen II. a present of the Exarchate and Pentapolis in North Italy, the temporal power of the popes began.

CHAPTER III.

MAHOMET AND HIS CREED.

Central Point : THE HEGIRA, 622 A. D.

Arabia and the Arabs—Mahomet's early life—Proclaims his creed—The Hegira—Battles of Beder and Ohod—Capture of Chaibar—Battle of Muta—Occupation of Mecca—War in Syria—Death of Mahomet—The Koran and Sonna—Moslem belief—Religious duties—Caliphate of Abu Beker—Caliphate of Omar—Moslem victories at sea—Election of Ali—Siege of Constantinople—Conquests of Northern Africa.

THE Arabs of the sixth century were not unlike what they are now. The sandy table-land, which fills the centre of the peninsula, was dotted with the encampments of roving Bedouins, whose black tents nestled under the shade of acacia and date tree, only so long as grass grew green and fresh round the well of the oasis. The fringes of low coast land were filled with busy hives of traders and husbandmen. Mingled with these were men of many races, Persians, Jews, and Greeks, scraps of whose various creeds had come to be woven up with the native worship of sun and stars. The great temple was the Caaba at Mecca, in whose wall was fixed a black stone, said by tradition to have been a petrified angel, once pure white, but soon blackened by the kisses of sinners. Strongly marked in the national character was a vein of wild poetry, and their wandering habits predisposed them for plunder and war.

Among this people a child was born in 571, in the city of Mecca. His father, Abdallah, of the great tribe Koreish, was one of the hereditary keepers of the Caaba. His mother, Amina, was of the same noble race. Left an orphan at six, the little Mahomet passed into the care of a merchant uncle, Abu Taleb, whose camel-driver and salesman he grew up to be. So it happened that in early life he took many journeys with the caravans for Syria and Yemen, and filled his mind with the wild traditions of the desert. At twenty-five he undertook to manage the business of a rich widow, Cadijah, whose forty years did not prevent her from looking with fond eyes upon her clever, handsome steward. They were married and lived an uneventful life, until, in his fortieth year, Mahomet proclaimed himself a prophet. For some years before this, he was in the habit of retiring often to a mountain cave for secret thought and study.

611 A. D. Then, to his wife, his cousin Ali, his servant Zied, and his friend, Abu Beker, he told his strange story. Gabriel had come from God, had revealed to him wonderful truths, and had commissioned him to preach a new religion, of which the sum was to be, "There is but one God, and Mahomet is his prophet."

This faith he called *Islam*, an infinitive denoting homage or surrender, and expressing the believer's relation towards God. The word Moslem (corrupted into Mussulmaun), is from the same root—*salm*, to pay homage.

In three years he gained only forty followers. Then, bent upon a wider sphere, he invited his leading kinsmen to his house, and there proclaimed his mission, demanding to know which of them would be his vizier. None but Ali, a boy of fourteen, the son of Abu Taleb, answered his call; the rest laughed at the madman and his silly cousin. All the weight of the tribe Koreish was opposed to him, until ridicule and persecution drove him from the city. Taking refuge in his old uncle's castle, he continued to preach Islam in the face of their anger, and even returned to Mecca for a while. But the death of his protector, Abu Taleb, left him naked to the rage of his enemies; and when the leaders of Koreish laid a plot to murder him, each swearing to plunge a sword in his body, he fled at midnight, leaving Ali on his bed, wrapped in a green robe to deceive the murderers. After hiding in a cave for three days, with Abu Beker, he reached Medina, where many of his converts lived. This was the great Mahometan era, called *Hegira*, or the Flight, from which Moslems have since reckoned the years. In Medina, the prophet built his first mosque, beneath whose palm-wood roof his own body was to be laid in the grave, ten years later. Thus the preaching of Islam began to radiate from a new centre.

July 16, 622 A. D.

But a great change came. The dreamer and meek preacher for thirteen years, turned into a red-handed soldier. Islam became a religion of the sword. "The sword," cried Mahomet, "is the key of heaven and hell;" and ever since—never more loudly and ruthlessly than in our own day at Lucknow and Cawnpore—that fierce gigantic lie has been pealing its war-note in the Moslem heart.

His earliest attacks were upon the caravans of his ancient enemies, the Koreish. In the Valley of Beder he fell with 314 men upon nearly 1,000 Meccans, who had hurried out to protect a rich camel-train ftom Syria. The caravan escaped, but its defenders were driven in headlong rout int› Mecca. Among the spoils was a sword of fine temper, which was in the prophet's hand in all his future battles. Next year he was defeated and wounded in the face at Mount Ohod, a few miles north of Medina. This was a heavy blow, but the elastic spirit of the warlike apostle rose bravely beneath it, although he had now to struggle, not alone against the Koreish, but against the Jews, who mustered strong in northern Arabia. From Medina, now fortified with a deep moat, he beat back a great host, headed by Abu Sofian, prince of the Koreish. So greatly was his name now feared, that, when he ap-

624 A. D.

proached Mecca in the holy month, with 1,400 warlike pilgrims, an embassy from the Koreish offered peace. A treaty for ten years was made, of which one condition was that he and his followers should have leave to visit Mecca, on pilgrimage, for three days at a time.

He then turned his sword upon Chaibar, the Jewish capital of northern Arabia, where, we are told, the bearded Ali, glittering with scarlet and steel in the front of the battle, having lost his buckler, tore a heavy gate from its hinges, and bore it as a shield all day. The fortress was taken; but it was near being a dearly-bought conquest to the prophet. When he called for food, a shoulder of lamb, cooked by a Jewish girl, was set before him. The first mouthful told him something was wrong; sharp pain seized him; the meat was poisoned. One of his followers, who had eaten some, died in agony. Mahomet recovered for the time, but his frame received a fatal shock.

The battle of Honein laid all Arabia at his feet. Then, king in all but name, he turned his eyes beyond Arabian frontiers. He sent embassies to Heraclius of Constantinople, and Chosroes of Persia, demanding submission to his faith. Chosroes tore up the letter; Heraclius received the message more courteously, but with equal disregard. An envoy of the prophet having been slain in Syria, a Moslem army under Zeid marched from Medina to avenge the murder. At Muta, some distance east of the Dead Sea, the troops of the Eastern Empire were met in battle for the first time by the soldiers of Islam, and thoroughly beaten. Zeid, however, and two other Moslem leaders, were slain.

The great achievement of Mahomet's later life, was the occupation of Mecca in 629. At the head of 10,000 men he began a hurried, silent march. No trumpet was blown, no watchfire lighted, till they
629 came close to the city. Abu Sofian, made prisoner outside the
A.D walls, and converted by a naked sabre which was swung over his head, being allowed to return, told the Meccans how useless it would be to resist the warrior prophet. And so, unopposed, clad in a pilgrim's garb, but preceded by a forest of swords and lances, flashing in the sunrise, the conqueror entered his native city. Three hundred and sixty idols of the Caaba were broken to pieces. And from every Meccan throat burst the watchword of Islam, "Allah Achbar;" "God is great, and Mahomet is his prophet."

The last military efforts of Mahomet were directed against Syria. His lieutenant, Khaled, spread his dominion from the Euphrates to Ailah (Akaba), at the head of the eastern prong of the Red Sea, the capture of which opened the path of the Moslems into Africa. The prophet himself was half-way to Damascus, when he turned at the oasis of Tabuk, and came back to Medina to die.

At sixty-one, older than his years, racked by ineradicable poison, and spirit-broken by the death of his only son, the infant Ibrahim, he fell a victim to a violent fever. Though the apostle of a great falsehood, we cannot deny his excellent genius, and the molding power of his strong and pliant will. **June 7, 632 A.D.**

The creed of Mahomet is embodied in the Koran, a book compiled by Abu Beker, two years after the prophet's death. It consists of pretended revelations from Gabriel, uttered from time to time by Mahomet, and carefully written on palm leaves and mutton bones by his devoted followers. Another book, called Sonna, composed of his scattered sayings, is of less authority.

Some of the leading articles of belief are: 1. There is but one God, 2. There are angels of various ranks; among them a fallen spirit, Eblis, driven from Paradise for refusing to worship Adam; also inferior spirits, liable to death, called Genii and Peris. 3. There are six great prophets—Adam, Noah, Abraham, Moses, Jesus, Mahomet. 4. There is a hell, called Jehennam, and a Paradise of wondrous beauty, full of sensual delights. 5. Men have no free-will; but all things are ruled by an unchanging Fate—a doctrine tending at first to kindle reckless fury in battle, but in the hour of peace a source of corroding indolence.

Devout Moslems practise four great religious duties: 1. Washing of curious nicety, followed by prayers five times a day, with the face towards Mecca. 2. The giving of one-tenth in charity. 3. Fasting from rise to set of sun during the thirty days of the month Rhamadan. Pork and wine are specially forbidden at all times. 4. A pilgrimage to Mecca at least once in life, which, however, may be performed by proxy.

When Mahomet died, four candidates claimed to succeed him. These were Abu Beker, the father of his best-loved wife; Omar, father of a second wife; Othman, the husband of two of his daughters; and Ali, his own cousin, married to Fatima, his only living child. Abu Beker, being appointed caliph (that is, successor), signalized his reign by the establishment of a Moslem kingdom on the west bank of the Euphrates. The fiery Khaled, hero of this conquest, then laid siege to Damascus, which fell in 634, on the very day of Abu Beker's death.

Omar, to whom the caliphate was left, pressed on the Syrian war. When Jerusalem surrendered in 637, the caliph—a foe to all finery and luxury—rode to take possession of the city, dressed in ragged hair-cloth, and seated on a rusty-brown camel, round whose neck were slung two little bags of rice and dates. We are reminded of this conquest by the Mosque of Omar, which rises where the great Jewish Temple once stood. By the

fall of Aleppo and Antioch all Syria was speedily subdued. Amru then fought his way through Egypt, crowning his victories with the conquest of Alexandria. The victorious Moslems are charged with having burnt the magnificent library of this great city; but recent writers say that it must have been destroyed long before Mahomet's day. Meanwhile, another lieutenant had been warring successfully with Yezdejerd, the Persian king. For three days a battle raged at Kadesia, until the slaughter of thirty thousand, and the loss of their sacred banner, which was a blacksmith's leather apron, put the Persians to flight. The capture of the capital, Madayn, and the victory of Nehavend, drove the royal Persian from his throne. To guard these conquests Omar founded Bassora and Cufa on the Euphrates. The former, near the Persian Gulf, became a great centre of commerce; the latter—whence comes the word Cufic, applied to the oldest shapes of the Arabic alphabet—was for a time the capital of the caliphs. This greatest of the immediate successors of Mahomet, the conqueror of Syria, Egypt, and Persia, was stabbed in the mosque at Medina by a Persian fire-worshipper, and died a few days later (644).

640 A.D.

Under Othman, his successor (644–655), the most notable event was the appearance of the Moslems as victors by sea. A fleet, built by the Emir of Syria, swept the Levant, conquering Cyprus and Rhodes, and destroying at the latter island the great brazen statue famed as the Colossus. Othman has been called the "Gatherer of the Koran," from his success in restoring the purity of the original version. The feeble old man of eighty, badly able to cope with the restless spirits around him, was murdered by a mob in his own house at Medina.

Ali, in whose veins ran Mahomet's blood, was then elected caliph; but not without discontent and dissension, of which the very greatness of the Moslem dominion was the source. The election was a scene of clamor. Men were there from Euphrates, from Jordan, and from Nile. Moawyah, the victorious Syrian Emir already noticed, raised the banner of revolt; and, when Ali was assassinated at Cufa, in 661, he became the first caliph of the great Ommiyad line.

It was under Moawyah that the Arabs girded themselves for their first dash at Constantinople. Yezid, the caliph's son, led the attack. For seven years (668–675) the siege lasted; but every assault was repelled by torrents of the terrible Greek fire—a mixture which seems to have been made chiefly of *naphtha*. Scorched and blinded by the deadly, unquenchable flame, the Moslems recoiled, leaving the Bosphorus strewn with the charred fragments of their fleet. A second siege, forty-one years later, had the same result.

But it was not so on the southern shore of the Mediterranean. Dis-

union at the centre of the Moslem power had at first hampered their movements. But soon Akbah penetrated all Barbary to the Atlantic, and founded in 674, near modern Tunis, the city of Kairouan, which grew to be the great mart of northern Africa in the Middle Ages. All efforts of the Berbers or Moors to stem the flood were useless. Cyrene and Tripoli fell; Carthage was destroyed in 698; and, thirteen years later, a host of turbaned Arabs stood, with red scimitars unsheathed, gazing fiercely across the narrow strait towards that great rock of southern Spain, which still bears their leader's name.

CHAPTER IV.

MEROVINGIANS AND THEIR MAYORS.

Central Point: BATTLE OF TOURS, 732, A.D.

Early Merovingians—Fourfold division—Dagobert I.—Mayors of the Palace—Pepin of Heristal—Charles Martel—Battle of Tours—Martel Duke of the French—Pepin le Bref—Crowned king—Gift of land to the pope.

BEGINNING with Pharamond in 418, the list of Merovingian kings of the Franks contains thirty-four names. Third of these was Meroveg or Meer-wig (sea-warrior), from whom the race derived their name. And the fifth was Clovis, who has been already named as the true founder of the French monarchy.

When Clovis died in 511, his kingdom was cut into fragments, and for more than a century the curse of a divided power vexed the land. There were four great divisions. Neustria lay north of the Loire; eastward along and beyond the Rhine was Austrasia; Aquitaine stretched between the Loire and the Pyrenees; while the basin of the Saone and Rhone formed the kingdom of Burgundy. Murder often left vacant thrones; and then one sceptre ruled all France. Under Dagobert I. (628–638), the ablest of the Merovingian kings, there was a short-lived union of the kingdoms; but with his sons came new and worse divisions.

The kings sank into the *rois fainéants*, or sluggard kings, of French history, while the real power passed into the hands of their Mayor of the Palace, a high official, chosen by the nobles to be the guide and controller of the sovereign, and who, having command of the army and the military chest, in reality wielded the whole power of the state. Of these mayors, the most noted were Pepin of Heristal, his son Charles Martel (the Hammer), and his grandson Pepin le Bref (the Short). The third of these iron-handed mayors sat on the throne as the first king of the Carlovingian line.

Pepin of Heristal, Duke of Austrasia, held the office of mayor under

Thierry or Theodoric III., one of the *fainéants*. By the victory of Testri he gained supremacy over Neustria ; and then, placing Neustria and Burgundy under his sons, he made the mayoralty hereditary. He ruled from 687 to 714, holding Cologne and Aix-la-Chapelle as centres of his power.

Charles, the son of Pepin, succeeded him as Duke of Austrasia in 715—as mayor in 719. Chilperic and Thierry sat in their country-houses, among their barns and dovecōts, combing the long hair which they cherished as the undoubted sign of their kingship ; or drove about, with blank faces and lack-lustre eyes, in a clumsy wagon drawn by oxen, while Mayor Charles fought the battles and made the treaties and the laws of the Franks.

One of his grand designs was to reduce the German tribes to obedience ; and for this purpose he formed the restless Franks into a sort of militia. But from this work he was turned to do a greater deed—to break the sword of Islam on the plain of Tours, and thus win his best title to the tremendous name he bears in history.

The Arabs, who had crossed the Straits of Gibraltar in 711, overthrew the kingdom of the Visigoths at Xeres. The dark flood, spreading over almost all Spain, poured through the passes of the Pyrenees upon southern France. Eudo, Duke of Aquitaine, was defeated, and a swarm of turbans mustered thick on the banks of the Loire. But on a grassy plain between Poictiers and Tours a terrible blow was struck, which
732 A.D. saved western Europe from a bloody conversion to the Moslem creed, as the Greek fire had twice already saved Constantinople and the East. Charles Martel and his Franks strewed the field with three hundred thousand Moslem slain : and soon drove the shattered remnant of the host back to Spain.

Then, turning to the work he had left off for a while, the mayor rapidly brought the Bavarians, Saxons, and Frisians again under Frankish sway. He was held in no great esteem by the churchmen of his realm ; for, at a pinch for money, he made no scruple about pillaging a church or monastery. The pope, Gregory III., sending him the keys of St. Peter's tomb, with the titles of *Consul* and *Patricius*, begged his aid against the Lombards. But there was too much for the Hammer to do in France, and the aid was not given.

When Thierry died in 737, the throne remained vacant for four years, Charles Martel ruling under a new title—Duke of the French—until his death in 741. His sons, Carloman and Pepin, divided the mayoralty between them ; but Carloman, soon retiring to an Italian monastery, left Pepin alone in the government.

Pepin le Bref (the little King Pippin of our nursery tale) aimed more at a moral influence over his subjects than his iron-handed father had ever

done. In securing this, his best helper was a Saxon monk, Winifred—otherwise known as Boniface, Archbishop of Mayence.

Long since the sluggard Merovingians had become mere names in the state, and the time was now come when the sham was to be done away. The popes, repeating the urgent request for aid against the Lombards, which they had made in vain to Charles Martel, found Pepin more willing to befriend them. But for this a price must be paid. Pepin puts a question to Pope Zachary, "Who ought to be king; the man with the power, or the man with only the name?" Upon the question and its answer hinges the fate of the Merovingian dynasty. Only one answer could be given. Mayor Pepin turns into the first of the Carlovingian kings of France; and poor Childeric III., shorn of all his long, royal hair, retires to live and die in a convent. **752 A.D.**

Pepin was crowned twice with the most solemn sanction of the Church; first by Boniface, then by the hands of Pope Stephen himself, who came all the way from Rome to anoint the new monarch at St. Denis.

For this service Pepin paid a royal fee. Two expeditions of the Franks into Italy left him master of the Exarchate and the Pentapolis, which he handed over to the pope—thus laying the foundation of the temporal sovereignty attached to the Papacy. This gift of territory comprised the lands between Ancona and the Po, stretching inland to the Apennines.

Besides his Italian conquests, Pepin subdued the Saxons, took Aquitaine, drove the Arabs finally beyond the Pyrenees, and reduced the Bavarians to vassalage. He died in 768, leaving the southern part of his kingdom to Carloman, the northern to Charles—well known as Charlemagne, or Charles the Great.

CHAPTER V.

BARBAROUS RACES OF INFANT EUROPE.

Four great migrations—Their effects—The Goths—The Franks—Burgundians and Vandals—Modern Goths and Vandals—Track of the Lombards—The Saxons—Contrast between Celts and Teutons—Origin of the Dutch—The Sclavonians—Early wealth of Poland—Foundation of Hungary.

EUROPE was gradually peopled from Asia. Four great tides of migration may be noted. First came the wave which peopled Greece and Italy; then Celts and Cimbri, who occupied Spain, France, and Britain; in the third place, the Germans, who filled Central Europe; and lastly, Sarmatian or Sclavonic tribes, who peopled the northeast, and upon whom pressed the Huns from Mount Ural, and Tartars from beyond the Caspian.

The continuous flowing of these barbaric tribes west and south, under

the ceaseless pressure of new immigrants from the east—their mingling and blending with one another, and with the old populations of the lands into which they poured—formed the power by which the fragments of the fallen Roman Empire were wrought into the variegated mosaic of mediæval and modern Europe. A glance at the map of our Continent, as it appears at the close of each century, will show the pattern of the mosaic changing continually, like the stars of colored glass in a kaleidoscope.

The chief Germanic tribes were the Goths, the Franks, the Vandals, the Lombards, the Saxons, and the Scandinavians.

The earliest home of the Goths was Scandinavia, where we can still mark their dwelling-places by such words as—Godoland, Godesconzia (Castle of the Goths), and, plainer still, Gothland. But the roving spirit natural to barbarism would not let these blue-eyed, golden-haired giants, hardened by the breezes of the North, rest content with their native swamps and forests. They began to push southward about 200 A.D., and we soon find them in central Europe in three great divisions—Visigoths (West Goths), Ostrogoths (East Goths), and Gepidae (Laggards). They were the most civilized of the German tribes ; and are further remarkable for having adopted Christianity, though in the corrupt Arian form, as their national religion, not only earlier than their brother savages, but even earlier than the Greeks and Romans. In little more than two centuries after their first start from Sweden, Alaric was victor within the walls of Rome. The Visigoths, after this achievement, founded a kingdom in Spain, which survived till the invasion of Saracens in 711. The Gepidae, who had dwelt at first round the springs of the Vistula, and had slowly moved down upon the Danube, fell before the advancing Lombards.

The extinction of the Ostrogoths, who had settled in Italy after the fall of the Roman Empire, has been already noticed. In spite of their rude dresses of skin, and their clattering brogues, over which fell in clumsy folds their wide trousers, strapped round their ankle with a leather thong, we recognize in the Goths a race of men capable of high polish, and fitted for great deeds. They were honest and free-hearted ; and among them the Romans saw what they looked for in vain among themselves—modest and virtuous wives, each the centre and light of a home, where parents and children lived united in sweet domestic love. Let us thank God that many lands of modern Europe have inherited the good old Gothic home, hallowed by Christian faith, and refined and brightened by the thousand appliances of modern civilization ; and nowhere are its gentle safeguards more dearly prized and cherished than within our own island-shores.

Early in the sixth century we find France parcelled out among three nations—Franks in the north and centre, Visigoths in the southwest, and Burgundians in the southeast. Underlying these ruling races was a great

mass of Celts or Gauls, and some Roman settlers, reduced to a state of vassalage. Of the Franks (*frak*, rude in fight, or undaunted)* there were two great tribes—Salian Franks, at first occupying modern Belgium, and Ripuarian Franks, dwelling along the lower Rhine. The former word still survives in the name of a law—once, perhaps, rational, but now absurd—which in some states (France, for example) prevents a woman from filling the throne. Clovis, the leader of the Salian Franks, was at first merely a captain of *leudes*, or free warriors, with no title to command except what his personal qualities gave him. He roved from city to city, until the influence of the clergy, and the gift of a gold crown and purple robes from Constantinople, gave him some show of royalty, and then he fixed his court at Paris. The assembly of the soldiers, called *mallum*, met in spring on the Champs de Mars. The towns were still under the old Roman law, which was administered and executed in each district by a *Graf*. The long-haired successors of Clovis lounged life away on their farms, far from the toils of government—almost their only share in public life being the yearly expedition to the *mallum*, when the old state cart was furbished up, and the king and queen, sitting in state behind the goaded oxen, jolted away with clumsy pomp towards the Field of Mars. It must be remembered, that although their country bears a name derived from the Franks, the great mass of the modern French are of Celtic race.

Pressed by the Gothic invasions, a mingled host of Vandals, Alans, Burgundians, and Sueves left the uplands between the springs of the Rhine and the Danube early in the fifth century. The Burgundians, settling in eastern France, were soon subdued beneath the sword of Clovis. There, as peasants and craftsmen, they long preserved traces of their original barbarism, retaining among other strange customs the practice of buying and selling wives; and, although they were reputed to be the most humane of all the barbarous races within the Roman frontier, we catch a glimpse of domestic life among them, not the pleasantest, in the right they claimed of dismissing a wife who was suspected of poisoning or witchcraft. These unwifely accomplishments seem to have been fashionable among the ladies of old Burgundy.

The Vandals and Sueves pushed on to Spain, and founded a kingdom in the northwest corner of the peninsula. Here the Sueves held out until they were overthrown by the Visigoths. The fierce, restless Vandals, leaving their name behind them in the word Andalusia (once Vandalos), crossed to Africa in 428, swept along the north coasts to Tripoli, soon

* Other authorities derive the name Frank from an ancient German word of nearly similar sound, signifying a battle-axe, the distinctive weapon of the race.

launched their pirate skiffs on the Mediterranean, grew rich by plunder, sank amid their bowers of orange and myrtle into the voluptuous habits of a southern climate, and finally perished beneath the sword of Belisarius.

From Roman ideas of their barbaric foes, we have inherited two words of bitter contempt. The clown in dress and manners is a Goth; the animal whose soul is dead to the love of the beautiful in art, and who would rejoice in the wanton destruction of glorious paintings and sculptures, is to us a Vandal.

The track of the Lombards has been already marked out. Their original home was near the Skaw in Jutland. Thence they removed to the flat shores of Brandenburg; but a flood-tide, washing over their fields, drove them to the higher banks of the Elbe. Then, passing southeast towards the Danube, they made it a starting-point for their march upon Italy, where the name Lombardy still points out the scene of their greatest triumphs.

The Saxons (knife-men from *Sachs*), at first occupying Holstein, soon spread over the basin of the Weser. Two kindred tribes—Angles and Jutes—filled the peninsula of Denmark. All were of the Teutonic type, blue-eyed, red or yellow-haired, pink-cheeked. The invasion of Britain by these three tribes is one of the most remarkable facts in the history of the barbaric migrations. There they found a population of Celts, who, retreating to the mountains, kept them stoutly at bay with claymore, dirk, and axe. Akin to the British Celts were the Irish people, who, living under Brehon law, upon game, fish, and what poor cattle they could rear, were, even in that gray dawn of Western history, famous as poets and harpers. Patrick, a Scotchman, began to preach the gospel in Ireland about 432; and, as if to repay the blessing, an Irishman, Columba, passed into Scotland in 563 on the same sacred mission.

In dress, government, occupation, and religion, the Teuton and the Celt presented a strong contrast to each other. The Teuton garb was a loose, rude tunic, pinned round the neck with a thorn. In youth he wore an iron collar, which was flung aside when he had achieved the distinction of killing a man. Then, too, the young men of some of the fiercest tribes—the Batavians of the Lower Rhine, for example—cut their hair and shaved their heads for the first time. The Gaul or Celt, on the other hand, loved bright and many-colored clothes, and hung gold chains on his brawny arms or round his huge neck. This characteristic of the race may still be noted in the colored tartans of the Highlander and the tasteful fashions of French dress. The Teutonic government was democratic—the chief power resting with the great assembly of the people, which was convoked at the time of full moon; the government of the Celts was

essentially aristocratic—clanship being its leading feature. War was the trade of the Teutons, tillage and pasturing the favorite employments of the Celt. And, while the Celts clung long to Druidism, the Teutons, acknowledging only one supreme God, were easily prepared to receive Christianity.

Holland (Hollowland), whose flat meadows have been formed by gradual deposits of Rhine mud, was at this early time a vast swamp, skirted here and there along the coast by tangled forests. On mounds rising from the morass dwelt a race of fish-eaters, who clung to their poor hovels until a flood swept all away. The emptied Rhine-island was then seized by part of the Chatti, a fierce German tribe, who, making the most of their new home, called it Betauw (Good-meadow), afterwards altered into Batavia. From this mixture of Celt and German sprang the modern Dutch.

Of the Scandinavians, or Norsemen, an account will be given in a future chapter.

The original inhabitants of the bleak shores of northern Europe were Finns, of the Mongol stock—a gentle, black-haired people, whose best representatives now are the Laplanders. These were soon subdued by a race at first known to the Romans as Sauromatæ, or Sarmatians (lizard or green-eyed), but who soon took from their own language the name Sclavonian (manly or brave). Their cities were mere wagon-camps. Their warriors, who led into battle a spare horse or two, wore a cuirass of coarse linen, plated over with thin slices of horse-hoof. Poisoned fish-bones formed the points of their arrows and lances. Their religion was a kind of Druidism ; and, among other revolting customs common to many of the northern tribes, they were wont, in rejoicing after a victory, to drink blood out of their enemies' skulls. Our word "slave" (borrowed from the name, Sclavi), is sadly suggestive of the woes they suffered in the wars of the Middle Ages, and of the degrading serfdom in which millions of their descendants are still held.

Poland was early a flourishing country. It was peopled by the Liaechs, a tribe of the western Sclavonians. The farmers went to battle on foot, bearing shield and lance ; the landlords on horseback, glittering in splendid armor. The traffic between the Black and Baltic Seas, passing along the Vistula, added much to the wealth of the Poles.

Wild hordes from Mount Ural, passing the Carpathian gorges in quick succession, swept down on the Danube. All pressed upon one point—modern Hungary, with its grain-growing vales and gem-producing hills. Goths were displaced by Huns. Then, from the same far-off snowy slopes, came Avars, Bulgarians, and lastly, Magyars, who, in 855, seized the upland between the mountains and the Theiss. Scarcely less

savage than the Huns were these later invaders. They ate horse-flesh (though now-a-days that is no sign of barbarism). They shot arrows with terrible force and aim, and flashed their irresistible lances, tipped with bright-colored pennons, in the faces of their startled foes. Behind the lines of cavalry, as they marched, heavy carts jolted, filled with their wives and little ones. These strangers, once rooted in the basin of the Danube, began to thrive with wonderful rapidity; arts, agriculture, commerce, flourished all alike. About 1000 A.D., they were converted to Christianity, and gradually took shape as the noble Hungarian nation, who, in a perilous time, stood with unflinching valor on the furthest outpost of Christendom, three times within ten days beating back the Turks beneath the walls of Belgrade (1456), and whose heroic fight against a giant tyranny this century has seen with deep admiration.

GREAT NAMES OF THE THIRD PERIOD.

SIDONIUS APPOLLINARIS, born in Gaul, 428—Bishop of Arverni (Clermont)—an intimate friend of Theodoric—wrote poems and epistles—died 484.

ZOZIMUS, a Greek historian of the fifth century—chief work, "History of Rome from Augustus to Second Siege by Alaric."

PRISCIAN, probably born at Cæsarea—lived at the court of Justinian—distinguished as a grammarian—chief work, "Treatise on Latin Grammar."

BOETHIUS, born at Rome, 455—consul under Odoacer and Theodoric—only Latin philosopher of his day—chief work, "On the Consolation of Philosophy," written in the prison of Pavia, where he was executed—526.

PROCOPIUS, born at Cæsarea, in end of fifth century—lived at Justinian's court—wrote "History of His Own Times," valuable as a link between ancient and mediæval history—wrote also "Anecdota," a secret history of Justinian's court.

CASSIODORUS, born about 470—secretary of Theodoric—wrote "History of the Goths," afterwards abridged by the Goth Jornandes—other works were on orthography and education—died aged nearly 100.

GREGORY OF TOURS, born in Auvergne, 544—Bishop of Tours—wrote in Latin a history of France up to his own day—our only authority on the early Merovingian reigns.

AUGUSTINE, prior of St. Andrews at Rome—sent by Gregory I., in 596, to preach to the English—the first Archbishop of Canterbury, where he died, about 607.

BEDE, born at Sunderland, about 673—an English monk—surnamed the Venerable—chief work, "History of the English Church," published about 734—died in 735.

WINIFRED, born in Devonshire, about 680—otherwise known as Boniface—justly called the "Apostle of Germany," where he labored for thirty years—made Archbishop of Mayence—slain by the Frisians in 755.

FOURTH PERIOD.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF CHARLEMAGNE TO THE BEGINNING OF THE CRUSADES.

CHAPTER I.

CHARLEMAGNE.

Central Point: CHARLEMAGNE CROWNED EMPEROR OF THE WEST AT ROME BY LEO III., 800 A.D.

Early life—Reduces Aquitaine—Charlemagne sole ruler of the Franks—Features of his policy—Destruction of the Saxon idol—Wittikind—Saxony annexed—Renewal of the war—Conquest of Lombardy—Expedition into Spain—Battle of Roncevalles—Repels the Avars—Conquest of the Ring—Crowned Emperor of the West—His sons—His foreign policy—Character and death—Treaty of Verdun.

WE now see the splintered fragments of western Europe—so often combined and dissolved since the great ruin of the Roman Empire—once more united into a solid, towering rock, the noblest landmark in the history of the Middle Ages; and the hand, whose strong grasp is to hold these mixed and various elements in firm cohesion for three and forty years, is that of Charlemagne, who is known in German history by the more modest name of *Karl der Gross*.

Charles, the son of Mayor Pepin and Bertha, was born about 742; and it must not be forgotten that this great Austrasian Frank, although best known by his French name, was not a Frenchman at all in our sense of the word, but a thorough German by birth, speech, and residence. He was yet a child when his father was crowned and anointed king; and, when that father died in 768, he was left to share with his elder brother, Carloman, the sovereignty of the Frankish kingdom. To Carloman were left Neustria, Burgundy,—in fact, all northern and central France; to Charles, Austrasia, Thuringia, and other parts of Germany owning Frankish sway.

The first great military deed of Charles was the conquest of Aquitaine; and scarcely was that achieved, when his brother, having died in 771, the chiefs of Carloman's realm, passing over the infant children of the dead man, according to a custom common in those troubled times, chose the young conqueror to be their king. He was then twenty-nine years of age.

771 A.D.

His reign divides itself into two parts. The one, extending from its opening in 771, to the complete subdual of the Saxons in 804, was spent in constant wars on almost every frontier ; the other, from 804 to his death, was devoted to the organization and improvement of the vast empire which his sword had won.

The chief wars of Charlemagne were with the Saxons beyond the Rhine, the Lombards of Italy, the Saracens of Spain, and the Avars, who occupied modern Hungary. He fought also with the Danes, and the Sclavonic tribes on his eastern border.

The guiding principle of Charlemagne's policy was this—to secure the affection of his subjects by working on two of the deepest feelings of our nature—patriotism and religion. He gained his aim by cherishing all the old German institutions, upon which the mass of his people looked with deep reverence, and by becoming the protector of the pope and the champion of the Church.

The Saxons, who dwelt chiefly round the Weser, were Pagans, closely connected with the savage Frisians, by whom Boniface was martyred in 755. To anticipate the attack of fierce and dangerous neighbors, and to open the way for the missionaries of the Church, seem to have been the motives of Charlemagne in this war. At a Diet of Worms he called his soldiers to the field. The opening campaign was full of evil omens for the Saxons. Their castle of Eresburg was taken ; **772** but worse than such a loss was the destruction of their A.D. greatest idol, Irminsul. Within a spacious court, on a marble pillar, it stood—the colossal statue of an armed soldier, carved in wood. In time of war it was carried by the priests into the field ; and, when the battle was over, all prisoners and cowards were slain at its feet in sacrifice. This image, round which the national worship centred, was broken to pieces by Charlemagne, and the pillar buried deep in the earth. Smitten with sudden terror, the Saxons sued for peace, giving twelve hostages as pledges of their good faith.

The Saxon custom was to choose a leader of the whole nation only in times of emergency ; and when the crisis was past, the king sank to a level with the other chiefs. But now a man arose, who, by the force of his genius, became for years the master-spirit of his nation. This was Wittikind, to whose prowess the long, determined resistance of the Saxons to the arms of Charlemagne was mainly owing. Stirred by this restless chief, they rose again and again. The war was hottest round Eresburg and Sigisburg, which, taken by the Frankish king, had been made his chief strongholds. Playing upon his desire to Christianize them, the defeated Saxons asked to be baptized, and promised to keep peace ; but whenever his armies were withdrawn, taking advantage of his absence in Italy and

Spain, they relapsed into their bloody idolatry, and turned their swords upon the Christian missionaries.

This went on for several years, until, in 779, Charlemagne, wearied witl useless clemency, resolved to annex the Saxon country to his empire. He appointed bishops, and enacted laws for the conquered land. It gives us a painful notion of the savage state of those, sprung from the same stock as most of ourselves, when we remember that the laws enacted by Charlemagne as fittest for the Saxons bear a striking resemblance to that blood-stained code imposed by Draco upon the Athenians, in which death was the punishment for almost every crime.

Wittikind, who had fled to the Danish king in 777, appearing once more at the head of the Saxons, cut to pieces a great Frankish army at Sinthal. Never, perhaps, did Charlemagne's wrath blaze more fiercely out than when he heard this fatal news. Hurrying to the scene while his fury was still hot, he massacred in one day four thousand five hundred of those who had taken the field with Wittikind. The chief himself escaped again to the Northmen. In the next spring (783) Charlemagne gave the Saxons another stern lesson, by defeating two of the greatest armies they had ever mustered—the one under Wittikind at Dethmold, the other on the banks of the Hase in Westphalia. The Saxon chief soon abandoned the hopeless contest. Some feeble revolts followed; but the strength of the nation was broken, and their final subdual dates from 804, when ten thousand of them were drafted away to Flanders, Brabant, and some districts of France.

Charlemagne's first wife was the daughter of Desiderius, the Lombard king of Italy; and, naturally enough, when he divorced her to marry Hildegarde, strong ill-will arose between the monarchs. This made the Frankish king lend an easy ear to the prayer of Pope Adrian I. for aid against the Lombards. His father and his grandfather had been enlisted on the pope's side; and why should not he, a Roman patrician, anointed with holy oil, draw sword in the same cause? His army, piercing the passes of the Alps in two divisions, found the country all open to them, and the Lombard king shut up in Pavia. In Verona, which surrendered at once, he found the widow and sons of Carloman, who had fled to the court of Desiderius. Of them we hear no more. One after another the Lombard cities fell; but Pavia stood firm, until Charlemagne, returning

774 A.D. from a brilliant visit to Rome, drew the circle of blockade so closely round the city, that the starving garrison flung open their gates, and gave up their king. Desiderius spent the rest of his days in a cloister, while Charlemagne, becoming king of Lombardy, assumed the famous iron crown worn by the old Longobard chiefs who first settled in Italy.

Some time before the accession of Charlemagne, the Mahometans of Spain, revolting against the Abbaside Caliphs, had set up the Emirate of Cordova; but embers of strife were still alive among them, and a malcontent invited Charlemagne to cross the Pyrenees. Fired with the memory of his grandfather's glory, and hoping, too, to heighten the prestige of his own name as Defender of the Faith, he led his forces into Spain. Here, as at the Alps, he adopted the plan which he is said to have first applied, if not invented, of dividing his forces, and moving the different bands by converging routes upon one great centre. His chief point of attack was Saragossa, the fall of which made him master of Aragon and Navarre. A tract of country south of the Pyrenees was added to his empire under the name of the Spanish March. While the victors, laden with spoil, were returning into France, their rear-guard was cut to pieces in the pass of Roncevalles (Briar-valley) by the Basques or Vascons. Among the dead was Count Rolando of Bretagne, the nephew of Charlemagne, whose name, embalmed in many a Norman romance, is immortalized in the verse of Ariosto. **778** A.D.

Tassilo, Duke of Bavaria, was the son-in-law of Desiderius the Lombard. When the Lombard kingdom was destroyed, Tassilo, rising against Charlemagne, to whom he owed homage, secretly invited the Avars to support him in his rebellion. The rebel Duke was soon shut up in a convent; but the Avars fulfilled their part of the agreement by invading Bavaria. In his first campaign against them Charlemagne penetrated as far as the Raab in Hungary. Then, called off by Saxon incursions, he left the war to his son Pepin, who, in 796, captured the Ring—a round timber fortress at Buda, full of gold and silver—an achievement by which the Franks, who had before that time possessed little more than their swords, became well-nigh the richest nation in Europe. During this war Charlemagne began to dig a canal from the Danube to the Rhine—a grand idea, which, however, he never realized. The defeat of a rising in 799 marks the end of the Avar power in Europe. Still, in the defiles of Mount Caucasus dwell a few war-like tribes of similar name; but they are a mere shadow of the great nation smitten on the Danube by the conquering sword of Charlemagne.

Take now the central picture of the reign. Pope Leo III., attacked by a band of conspirators, was left bleeding, and all but dead, one April day, on the streets of Rome. On his recovery he visited Charlemagne at Paderborn, where he was royally entertained, and whence he returned to Italy under the escort of nine Frankish nobles. The king himself soon followed. On Christmas day the proudest chiefs and prelates of Italy and the Frankish land, glittering with purple and gold, stand round the high altar of St. Peter's. In the **800** A.D.

centre of the throng is a giant figure, whose dome-shaped brow and flashing eye mark a great mind and heart. Clad in the long robe of a Roman patrician, he kneels on the steps of the altar and bows his head in prayer. Some minutes pass in silence. Then, with quick and sudden action, the noblest of the splendid priesthood places a crown upon the kneeler's head, and the walls ring with pealing shouts: "Long life and victory to Charles Augustus, Emperor of the Romans." Pope Leo III. has revived the Empire of the West, and its crown is sparkling on the brow of Charlemagne. Though the emperor said that he would not have gone to the church if he had known of the pope's intention, there seems small doubt that this daring act only anticipated by a little his own long-cherished plans.

So early as 781, when his eldest boy was only ten, Charlemagne, looking on to a time when he should have need of trusty viceroys, had divided his kingdom among his sons. Germany was given to Charles, Aquitaine to Louis, and Italy to Pepin. This arrangement enabled him to spend his latter years in comparative peace, for to his sons he left what petty wars were necessary to secure so vast a frontier. Of these three sons Louis alone survived him.

The influence of Charlemagne, enthroned in his great palace at Aix-la-Chapelle, extended to the Byzantine court, and further still, to the Tigris, where Haroun al Raschid dwelt. The great caliph and the great emperor were especial friends. But the best energies of Charlemagne were given to western Europe, on whose destinies he wrought so notable a change. A link, too, binds him to British history; for, when Egbert fled from the cruel Beortric, he found a safe and pleasant retreat, and, no doubt, kindly advice and aid besides, in the court of Aix-la-Chapelle. Charlemagne feared only one foe, and that not for himself, but for his successors. The light galleys of the Norsemen were already swooping down on the British coasts, and threatening his own seaboard; and the keen eye of the old warrior, piercing the future, could see the Raven of the North thrusting its beak into many a crack and cranny in the fair structure he had spent his life to rear.

814 A.D. Charlemagne died of pleurisy in his seventy-second year. A year before, in the cathedral of Aix-la-Chapelle, amid the applause of the assembled nobles, he had caused his only living son, Louis, to assume the imperial crown.

Active and untiring, this great man never lost a minute he could help. Even while dressing, he heard the reports of his officers; and as he dined or supped, books of theology or history were read to him. Habits like these enabled him to get through an enormous mass of work, and yet neglect neither bodily exercise nor the culture of his mind. Abroad he

hunted—at home he talked or studied with the learned friends in whose society he delighted. His genius was essentially military. His sword was seldom sheathed; but war was with him, as it ought ever to be, the pioneer of civilization.

Louis le Debonnaire, fitter for a monk's cell than a selfish court or brawling camp, succeeded his great father, and did all his gentle nature could for twenty-six years to humanize his subjects. But belted bishops and lawless chiefs were too strong for him. War among his three sons then divided the empire. Lothaire, the eldest, seized the imperial title; but Charles and Louis, uniting, defeated him in 841, on the bloody field of Fontenaille. Two years later, a treaty was made at Verdun, by which France and Germany became separate and independent states. Charles held France; Louis ruled Germany; 843 A.D. while Lothaire received Italy, with some broken strips along the Rhone and Rhine. As had happened in the family of Clovis, the race of Charlemagne, called Carlovingians, grew very degenerate; and there is nothing in the history of kings, branded with nicknames, such as the Stammerer, the Fat, the Foolish, the Lazy, to challenge our notice or respect. Such men misgoverned France, until, in 987, under Hugh Capet, a new dynasty arose. With that date the history of the Franks ends; that of the French begins.

CARLOVINGIAN KINGS OF THE FRANKS.

	A.D.
Pepin le Bref	752
Charlemagne and Carloman	768
Charlemagne alone	771
Louis I. (le Debonnaire)	814
Charles (the Bald)	840
Louis II. (the Stammerer)	877
Louis III. and Carloman II.	879
Carloman alone	882
Charles (the Fat)	884
Eudes or Hugh, Count of Paris	887
Charles III. (the Simple)	893
Robert, Brother of Eudes	922
Rodolf of Burgundy	923
Louis IV. (d'Outremer)	936
Lothaire	954
Louis V. (the Lazy)	986–87

CHAPTER II.

MOSLEMS IN THE WEST AND THE EAST.

Central Point: REIGN OF HAROUN AL RASCHID, 786 A.D. TO 808 A.D.

Division of the Moslem Empire—Battle of Xeres—Saracens take root in Spain—Emirate of Cordova founded—The Abbaside dynasty begins—Haroun al Raschid—His early wars—The letter of Nicephorus—Asia Minor ravaged—Policy of Haroun—The Emir-al-Omra—The Seljuk Turks—End of the Caliphate.

In the time of Charlemagne we find the great empire of Islam, which had stretched from the Indus to the Atlantic, broken into four parts—the Emirate of Cordova in Spain; the Abbaside Caliphate in Asia and Egypt; and two kingdoms in Northern Africa—Mekines, answering to modern Morocco, and Kairouan, along the old Carthaginian shore.

In 710 Tarik, a lieutenant of the Saracen general Musa, crossing the strait from Tangier with five hundred men, to reconnoitre the Spanish coast, landed at the rock, ever since called Gibraltar (the hill of Tarik). Next year, with twelve thousand men, he met and defeated at Xeres, Roderic, last of the Visigothic kings. The beaten monarch, who had

711 A.D. come to battle crowned with pearls, and lounging in an ivory car, was drowned in the Guadalquivir, as he fled from the fatal field. Musa completed the conquest of the peninsula, driving the remnant of the Visigoths into the mountain-land of Asturias.

Cordova, on the Guadalquivir, speedily became the centre of Moslem power in Spain. We have already seen how the march of the Crescent beyond the Pyrenees was checked at once and for ever at Tours by Charles the Hammer. Thrown back further and still further by Pepin and Charlemagne, the Saracens, building mosques and schools, and cutting out roads on every side, rooted themselves deep in central and southern Spain. And still deeper struck the roots of their power, when Abd-el-Rahman, only survivor of the great Ommiyad line, fleeing from murder on the Euphrates, severed Spain from the dominion of the caliphs, and erected

755 A.D. the independent Emirate of Cordova. Then begins the most brilliant chapter in the story of Moslem power in Europe. When the Ommiyad dynasty was drowned in blood at Damascus, the sceptre of the caliphs was seized by the Abbasides—offspring of Abbas, the uncle of Mahomet—and they held it for more than five centuries (750–1258). Of this race the most distinguished was Haroun al Raschid (Aaron the Just), who reigned from 786 to 808. The fascinating pages of the "Arabian Nights," the delight of childhood, and of riper years too—our great Macaulay does not disdain to draw frequent illustrations from the charming book—have made this name a household word among us.

We can still see the romantic caliph and his vizier, disguised as merchants, slipping out of the postern gate at dusk, to seek adventures in the narrow lanes of Bagdad. This great city, founded in 765, on the west bank of the Tigris, was for centuries the centre of Moslem power in Asia, the splendid home of the earlier Abbaside caliphs, the scene of their later degradation, and the blazing tomb of Abdallah, last of the ill-fated line.

Before his accession Haroun gained a soldier's name on the Bosphorus, where, from his camp on the hills of Scutari, he granted peace only on condition that the Empress Irene should pay a tribute of 70,000 golden pieces. During his caliphate he invaded the imperial territory eight times to enforce the payment of this sum. **781 A.D.**

Nicephorus, having dethroned Irene, sent Haroun a letter. "The queen," wrote he, in the language of the chess-board, "considered you a rook, and herself a pawn. Restore the fruits of your injustice, or abide the determination of the sword." The imperial envoy at the same time cast a sheaf of swords at the caliph's feet. Haroun, with a smile, drew his scimitar—Saracen steel was then famous all the world over—and, without turning its edge, he hacked to pieces all the badly-tempered blades. Then, turning to his scribe, he bade him write: "Haroun al Raschid, Commander of the Faithful, to Nicephorus, the Roman dog. I have read thy letter, thou son of an unbelieving mother. Thou shalt not hear, thou shalt behold my reply."

He then ravaged Asia Minor from end to end, leaving the ruins of Heraclea on the Euxine shore, to mark the terrible meaning of his answer. And, to imprint the disgrace of submission deeper still, the emperor was compelled to stamp the tribute-gold with the heads of Haroun and his sons.

Haroun, in the East, rivalled the policy by which his friend Charlemagne made Aix-la-Chapelle the Western centre of genius and learning. In the gorgeous halls of Bagdad, too, poets and scholars found a home and rich rewards; and under this kindly fostering the most brilliant period of Arabian literature began. The great blot upon the memory of this most illustrious of the caliphs was the massacre of the Barmecides, among whom were two of his trustiest viziers. He died in 808, while on an expedition against the rebel Satrap of Khorasan.

In the middle of the tenth century a new feature marked the history of the caliphate. The mayors of the palace, usurping the functions of the Frankish kings, found their parallel among the Moslems of Asia. The poor Caliph Rhadi (Ahmed IV.), helpless in the midst of an unruly people, gave all his power into the hands of Mahomet ben Raik, with the title of Emir-al-Omra (Emir of Emirs), reserving for himself only the shadowy dignity of High Priest of the Mosque. This chief emirship became, of course, a bone of furious **940 A.D.**

contention. For a century (945–1056) it was held by the great race of Buides.

Then, sweeping from the Caspian, came the horsetail standards of the Seljuk Turks, whose leader, Togrul Bei, became Emir-al-Omra, and whose conquests were soon extended to the borders of Syria. Still the Abbasides clung to the scene of their vanished power, until in 1258 a host of Mongol Tartars seized Bagdad, and Abdallah, last of the caliphs, died amid the ruins of the once brilliant city.

CHAPTER III.

THE RISE OF THE ROMANO-GERMANIC EMPIRE.

Central Point: THE REIGN OF OTHO THE GREAT, 936 A.D., TO 973 A.D.

Treaty of Verdun—Rise of Elector-Dukes—Henry the Fowler—Establishes burgs—Organizes cavalry—Otho the Great—Italian affairs—Repels Hungarians—Crowned Emperor of the West—A new day for Italy—Germany among the nations—Close of the Saxon line.

By the treaty of Verdun in 843, Germany and France were politically separated, the Rhine forming the general line of division between the states. For sixty-eight years longer, Carlovingians continued to rule on the eastern bank of the severing stream; but in 911 these worn-out sons of a great sire sank from their royal seat in Germany.

Conrad, Duke of Franconia, was then elected to rule the Germans; but it was not until 987, when Hugh Capet became king, that the Carlovingian power ceased in France. A marked difference is already manifest in the history of the two nations. The West Franks have all united into the French nation; but their eastern kinsmen, though certainly forming as a whole the German nation, still preserve a strongly-marked distinction into five leading tribes—Saxons, Thuringians, Franconians, Suabians, and Bavarians—whose dukes have learned, in times of trouble and weak rule, to exercise a power independent of king or emperor. These dukes were the electors; and up to the opening of this nineteenth century, when the Emperor of Germany was transformed into the Emperor of Austria, the imperial dignity continued to be elective. To the rise of these elector-dukes of the leading tribes can be traced that division of Germany into petty states, which is so strongly marked in the map of modern Europe.

918 A.D. Henry the Fowler, elected on the death of Conrad, was the first German prince of the Saxon line. His surname is said to have been given, because the messengers, who came to offer him the crown, found him catching birds. His title was, as Conrad's had been, only King of the Franconians; but the grand object

of his policy, in which he was very successful, was to unite under his sway all the German-speaking tribes. The Dukes of Alemannia and Bavaria were reduced beneath his sceptre. Lorraine, too, west of the Rhine, was subdued. But what called his highest powers into play was the continual irruption of the wild Hungarians upon his eastern frontier. He secured his borders by the establishment of "burgs," or fortified castles, along all the exposed lines of country. Many of these formed centres, round which afterwards grew those great German cities, so famous in the history of art and commerce. Besides, he organized a powerful force of cavalry to match the Magyars, whose chief strength lay in their horsemen. For this he has been called the founder of knighthood; but it cannot be said that knighthood was the institution of any one man or time. It was rather a national growth, dating from the earliest times of the German nation. No doubt its development received a powerful impulse from this prince, under whose system a high value was set upon a well-equipped and skilful cavalier.

Henry died in 936.

Otho, his son, succeeded him. The ceremonies of coronation and anointment were performed at Aix-la-Chapelle by the Archbishops of Cologne and Mayence. Otho came to a troubled throne. Most of the great dukes rose against him; but feeling the weight of his heavy hand, they soon grew submissive. And then through all the duchies he scattered counts of the palace and margraves, whose presence was a check upon the dukes, and whose watchfulness neutralized every stir of revolt. **936** A.D.

His attachment to the Church led him to turn his thoughts towards Italy. He had a selfish motive, too, for interfering there—his desire to gain the imperial crown, which had not been worn by a German prince for more than fifty years. Most of the great Italian nobles were aspirants to the honor; and the pope, in whose hand lay the power of conferring it, had no easy task to perform in deciding among the rivals. His great object naturally was to secure an emperor whose strong hand could defend him, both against his own insolent dependents, and against the Arab plunderers of southern Italy.

Lothaire, King of Italy, having died, his beautiful widow Adelaide was seized by one Berengar, who meant by marrying her to secure the kingdom for himself. She implored the aid of Otho, who was not slack to draw sword in the cause of so fair a suppliant. In no long time he subdued Lombardy; and his first wife, Edith, having been some time dead, he married Adelaide, an alliance by which he gained several steps towards the great object of his ambition. **951** A.D.

Four years later, he met the Hungarians, mustered in the full strength

of their nation, on the Lechfeld, near Augsburg, and by a bloody defeat gave a decisive check to their inroads upon Germany. At the same time, "to make assurance doubly sure," he formed a military district along the exposed frontier; and from this tract—the East march, or Austria—have since sprung the bitterest woes of Hungary. Otho defeated the Sclavonians between the Elbe and the Oder; and penetrating to the Vistula, was astonished to find upon its banks, occupied by the brave Poles, fields loaded with grain, and markets alive with the hum of commerce.

In 961 Otho's second and chief descent upon Italy took place. At Milan he was crowned with the iron circlet of the Lombard
962 kings; and in the following February, at Rome, he received
A.D. from the hands of Pope John XII. the more distinguished diadem of the Western Empire. Just 162 years had passed since Charlemagne, in the new flush of the same high distinction, had given the Roman eagle a second head, to denote his double dominion over Rome and Germany.

Otho found a fine field for the use of his newly-acquired power. Pope John, a man steeped in crime, justly branded in history as the Infamous, being detected in plots against the emperor whom he had himself crowned, was forced to flee. Leo VIII. was elected in his room. With his aid Otho began a wholesome reform in Italy. Sweeping away the lawless nobles, he placed the large domains under the gentler and juster sway of the bishops. Thus a new day dawned upon Italy, and liberty, almost forgotten, began again to flourish. To this change may be traced the growth of those brilliant republics, by which the Italy of the Middle Ages was so much distinguished.

973 After a third visit to Italy, lasting six years, Otho came back
A.D. to Germany to die. He drew his last breath in his old Saxon home.

Through all the later history of Europe, Germany has never lost the place among the nations which he was among the first to win for her. And when we remember how much the world owes to the cradle of printing and Protestantism, and how closely Britain has become in these days of ours linked, through her most illustrious family, to that old Fatherland of her main race, we cannot but be glad that the century succeeding that which wept for Charlemagne, saw in Otho a wearer of the imperial crown so worthy of its ancient fame and its brightening splendor.

Otho II., Otho III., and Henry II., were the remaining princes of the Saxon dynasty. The crown then passed to a Frankish line, of whom the first was Conrad II., elected in 1024.

THE SAXON AND FRANKISH EMPERORS OF GERMANY.

	A. D.
Conrad I.	911
Henry I.	918
Otho the Great	936
Otho II.	973
Otho III.	983
Henry II.	1002
Conrad II.	1024
Henry III.	1039
Henry IV.	1056
Henry V.	1106
Lothaire II.	1125
Interregnum	1138
Conrad III.	1138
Frederic Barbarossa	1152
Henry VI.	1190
Philip	1198
Otho IV.	1208
Frederick II.	1212
Conrad IV.	1250
William.	1250
Interregnum	1256-73

CHAPTER IV.

THE BYZANTINE COURT.

Central Point : REIGN OF JOHN ZIMISCES, 969 A.D. TO 975 A.D.

Position of the Eastern Empire—The Image Controversy—Rise of the Greek Church—The Macedonian dynasty—Leo VI. and John Zimisces—Byzantine government—Sketch of the Court—Approach of the Crusades.

The Eastern Empire, pressed between two gigantic and growing dominions—the German empire on the west, and on the east the caliphate of the Abbasides—nevertheless held its ground as a centre of civilization and refinement, Constantinople looking loftily down on the barbaric pomp of Aix-la-Chapelle and the Oriental splendor of Bagdad.

One hundred and sixty years after the death of Justinian, a great controversy about the worship of images began to agitate the mind of Europe. East and West were divided against each other, and against themselves. Leo III., the Isaurian, then Emperor of the East, believing that the victories of Islam were owing more to Christian weakness than to Moslem strength, resolved to 725 A.D.

root out the idolatry which had struck its roots so deeply in the Church. At once the factious spirit of the populace, no longer spending itself in trivial fights about the green and blue jockeys of the circus, found a new and expansive field of action.

All Christendom was severed into two great bands—*Eikonodouloi* (image-servers) and *Eikonoklastai* (image-breakers). Pope Gregory III. solemnly denounced the sin of image-breaking, under pain of excommunication. But, in spite of threat and curse the work went on, and a gulf, never since bridged over, grew between the Churches of Rome and Constantinople. The strife lasted for a hundred and twenty years, lulled only for a season, but not settled, by a decision of the second Council of Nicæa, in 787, which sought to cast oil on the waves by permitting the veneration, but forbidding the worship of images, until the final triumph of the image party in the Council of Constantinople in 842. From this controversy we may date the rise of the Greek Church, whose present stronghold is the Russian empire. The natural effect of the schism was to make the pope lean more strongly upon the western emperor, whose ascendency in European politics followed as a matter of course.

The rule of the Macedonian dynasty for nearly two centuries (867 to 1057), contains some of the most brilliant pages in Byzantine history. Hordes of barbarians, who, bursting through, had settled within the barriers of the empire, were converted to Christianity, and thus bound to the centre by the strongest ties. And never were the silk-looms and wool-marts of Constantinople so busy. Far west in Germany, and northward through all Russia, their beautiful fabrics were prized. Through the bazaars of the Byzantine capital the great tide of traffic from the East poured into Europe.

The ablest of the Macedonian emperors were Leo VI. (886-911), the Philosopher, author of a work on "Military Organization," and John Zimisces, who, during his reign of six years (969-975), restored the glory of the imperial name by his military exploits. John's most notable achievement was his defeat of the Russians. Swatoslaus, whose bed was a bear-skin, and whose meat was horse-flesh (such were early Russian generals), had swept all before him from the Volga to the Danube; and, piercing to Adrianople, was menacing the city of Constantine. John drove him back upon the Danube, broke into his strong camp, and sent him, with only a wreck of his army, famished and spiritless, back to his native wilds. Then, in sight of all Constantinople, the doughty little hero, climbing a great horse, paced in triumph through the streets with a golden crown on his head, and a garland of laurel in his hand.

The government of the Byzantine court was a thorough despotism. The emperor, who was dignified with the title "Autocrat," lived in splendid style. Take, as a specimen, the following sketch of an audience granted to some foreign envoys:

The ambassadors, passing through endless files of body-guards, glittering with brilliant armor and suits of every hue, beneath the rustle of silken banners, over Persian carpets strewn with roses and myrrh, at last enter the gorgeous palace of the empress. The air is loaded with perfume ; and, when they have reached the top of the marble stair leading to the hall of audience, suddenly the curtains, which fell in thick folds at their very feet, are drawn back, as if by magic, and a scene of bewildering splendor bursts upon their gaze. Upon a golden throne sits the emperor, robed in purple and white. Beside him is his beautiful wife ; and a throng of courtiers in white, the color of the court-dress, encircle the imperial pair. A golden palm-tree overshadows the throne, and flitting about in its branches are flocks of artificial birds of the brightest plumage. The lions carved in gold and silver, that guard the throne, spring forward, ramping and roaring with terrific force. And, high above every sound, swells the mellow peal of trumpets. The barbarian envoys, poor Tartars or Sclavonians, sink to the earth ; while the German knights, remaining erect, though awestruck by the costly glare, feel their great rough hearts dying within them, and every word of their carefully conned speeches passing clean out of their bewildered brains.

A day was coming, however, when all this magnificence was to change masters. Great events were brooding over Europe, when the Christian centuries passed into their second decade. The Crusades were at hand; and in the wild hurry and crowding of these religious wars Constantinople was destined to suffer heavily.

MACEDONIAN DYNASTY—EASTERN EMPIRE.

	A. D.
Basilius I.	867
Leo VI.	886
Alexander and Constantine VII.	911
Romanus.	919
Constantine VIII.	920
Five Emperors rule.	928
Romanus II.	959
Nicephorus II. (Phocas).	963
John Zimisces.	969
Basilius II. and Constantine IX.	975
Romanus III.	1028
Michael IV.	1034
Michael V.	1041
Constantine X. and Zoë.	1042
Theodora.	1054
Michael VI.	1056-57

CHAPTER V.

THE NORSEMEN.

Central Point: SETTLEMENT OF ROLLO, THE SEA-KING, IN NORMANDY, 911 A.D.

Forebodings of Charlemagne—Home of the Vikinger—Battle of Braavalla—Their rovings begin—Norse passion for war—Ansgar—Norsemen in England—Rollo's invasion of Normandy—Speedy refinement of Normans—Ruric founds Russia—The Varangian life-guards—Normans in southern Italy.

THE Emperor Charlemagne, looking out one day over the blue Mediterranean, saw the snake-like galleys of the Norsemen stealing along the horizon, and, as he looked on them, he wept for his descendants.

Already, for many a year, as soon as the spring sunshine had unlocked the sea, these Vikings—sea-kings, as they called themselves—stirred by a restless, warlike spirit, had pushed out from the deep, rocky *fiords* of Scandinavia, steering south and southwest. In the names Norway, and Normandy, we still trace their old home, and the scene of one of their most successful descents. A branch of the great Teutonic family, they had spread over Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, from which lands, centuries earlier, had come the famous Goths—Teutons too.

To guard the mouth of the Elbe against the Norsemen, Charlemagne built there a strong castle, which served as a nucleus for the great town of Hamburg. Before his reign their warlike fire had spent itself within the circle of their own lands. We read, in particular, of a desperate battle fought in 740, on the heath of Braavalla, between Harold Goldtooth, the Dane, and Sigurd Ring, the Swedish king. Harold, old and blind, died like a hero on the field; and Sigurd ruled in Scandinavia.

But then, sweeping both shores of the North Sea, began their wider rangings, which have left deep and lasting marks upon European history. One of the earliest of these rovers, Regnar Lodbrok, Sigurd's son, seized by Saxon Ella as he was ravaging Lindisfarne, shouted his war-song to the last, while snakes were stinging him to death in a Northumbrian dungeon.

Words cannot paint the ferocity of these northern warriors. Blood was their passion; and they plunged into battle like tigers on the spring. Everything that could feed their craving for war they found in their religion and their songs. Their chief god, Odin, was the *beau ideal* of a Norse warrior; and the highest delight they hoped for in Valhalla, their heaven, was to drink endless draughts of mead from the skulls of their enemies. There was, they thought, no surer passport to heaven than a bloody death

amid heaps of slain. And their songs, sung by *Skalds*, when the feast was over, and still heard among the simple, fur-clad fishermen, who alone remain to represent the wild *Vikinger*, ring with clashing swords, and all the fierce music of battle to the death.

But into the very centre of this dark, raging barbarism sparks of truth fell, which brightened and blazed until the fierce idolatry lay in ashes. Ansgar, the Apostle of the North, and first Archbishop of Hamburg, pressing with a few monks through fen and forest, early in the ninth century, preached the cross at the court of Biörn, on the banks of Maelarn.

England and France, as was natural from their position, suffered most in the descents of the Norsemen. During a part of the time that Harold Haarfager (Fair-haired) reigned in Norway (863 to 931), Alfred, King of Wessex, the mightiest of all the Norsemen's foes, was laying the foundation of British greatness. Little more than a century later, Alfred's crown passed to the Norseman Canute, and Norsemen wore it for twenty-four years. Then a little gap, and William, no longer a Norseman, but a Norman—mark well the change of name, for it denotes a deeper change of rough sea-kings into steel-clad knights—sat as Conqueror on the English throne, and set the wild Norse blood flowing down through the whole line of British sovereigns.

According to the Norse custom of piercing a land to the heart through its rivers, a swarm of boats, gilt and painted like dragons, pushed up the Seine in 901. The captain of these pirates was Rolf Ganger, or Rollo. Seizing and fortifying Rouen, they made it the centre of a marauding warfare that lasted for years. Wherever a branch stream met the main current, up they went to its very springs. New arrivals swelled the fleet; the discontented Frankish peasants flocked to Rouen; Paris was twice besieged. Charles the Simple, terror-stricken and helpless, yielded up, by a treaty concluded at St. Clair, on the Epte, the rich fields of Normandy and Bretagne to Rollo, who, as Duke of Normandy and peer of France, took an oath of fealty to him. Already another Norse chief, Hastings, noted for his dash upon England in Alfred's later years, had settled on French soil as Count of Chartres.

911 A.D.

The infusion of Norse blood among the kings and people of England has just been noticed. Here, then, is the same fresh, vigorous stream flowing into France; and, certainly, of the many elements which have combined to make the French a great nation, this is not the least important. The old love of the salt waves still haunts *la belle Normandie*, from whose smiling fields have come the greatest admirals and best sailors of France.

Rollo's men, marrying French wives, soon laid aside the rude Norse speech, except a few nautical words, which are still sung out by French

captains to French crews. They began to speak the common French dialect. Their love of enterprise turned into new channels. The pirates became ploughmen ; but every day the ploughmen grew more polished and poetic. Earing and sowing and reaping for their daily bread, they still cherished in their breasts a delight in the daring and the marvellous. Chivalry took deep root among them.

Their poets, no longer skin-clad *skalds*, but gay *trouvères*, still sang of war, but in strains that gave the earliest shape and polish to that graceful language in which La Fontaine and Molière have written ; and in the great arena of the Crusades no knights dealt harder blows at the Infidels, or splintered lances more gracefully in the tilt-yard, than did the offspring of those rough, old, yellow-haired Vikings who, but two hundred years before, had swept up the Seine in their dragon-ships, yelling the praises of the blood-stained Odin.

But not by sea only did the Norsemen spread. The northeast of Europe was filled with Sclavonian tribes, by whom two chief cities were founded—Novgorod on Lake Ilmen, and Kiev on the Dnieper. Some Norsemen, known as *Waeregs* (rovers)—the name was afterwards Graecised into Varangians—were invited to rule over one of these tribes, who were plagued with quarrels among their own chiefs. With others Ruric the Jute answered the call ; and entering Novgorod, he founded a kingdom, out of which has grown the great empire of Russia.*

862 A.D.

Oleg, guardian of Ruric's son, added much to the power of the Russo-Norsemen by the conquest of Kiev. The Christian worship, according to the forms of the Greek Church, was first made known in Russia under Olga, the daughter-in-law of Ruric ; and it was formally adopted as the state religion by her grandson Vladimir I., who was baptized in 980. For seven hundred and thirty-six years (862–1598) Ruric's descendants, of whom the last was Feodor, filled the Russian throne.

Through Russia the Norsemen reached Constantinople ; but thither they came, not to conquer, but to defend. Vladimir having dismissed his Danish guard, they took service under the Byzantine emperors ; and nowhere could be seen finer troops than these Varangian life-guards, with their dark bear-skins and glittering steel, the heavy broadsword swinging by their sides, and the two-edged axe poised on their shoulders. None but Scandinavians were at first allowed to enlist in their ranks ; but, when

* The origin of the name Russia is much disputed. Some suppose that one of the Sclavonian tribes was called Russniak. Others, with more probability, say that it is a Norse word signifying "Wanderers ;" while others again take it from the name of the Gothic tribe Rhoxalani.

William of Normandy scattered the Saxons at Hastings some of the fugitives were admitted as recruits.

A few Norman pilgrims, returning in 1016 from the Holy Land, helped the Prince of Salerno, in southern Italy, to repel an attack of Saracen pirates. Here, then, was a new field of warlike enterprise, where sharp swords were sure to bring a good price; and hither flocked over the Alps thousands of Norman adventurers. They at first took service under the Byzantine emperors, whose *catapans*, or governors, were struggling to recover Sicily from the Saracens; but irritated at the mean rewards they received for hard fighting, they seized Apulia and Calabria for the balance due. Foremost in the warlike band were two brothers from Hauteville in lower Normandy—Robert Guiscard, Duke of Apulia, and Roger, Count of Sicily. **1040** A.D.

Guiscard, a stalwart, handsome Norman, whose ruddy cheek and drooping moustache of golden flax almost won the heart of his fair foe, Anna Comnena, made two inroads upon Greece. In the first of these was fought the great battle of Durazzo, where, by a strange destiny, the Varangian life-guards of the Byzantine camp met their countrymen in battle, and were beaten. The conquest of Sicily from the Saracens was achieved by Roger, whose son of the same name was crowned first king of the fertile island. In less than a century, however, this Norman power in the south of Italy melted away, and the rough Norse warriors, having played out their part in history right well by giving new life to worn-out Europe, soon disappear from our view as a distinct nation. **1081** A.D.

CHAPTER VI.

LIFE AT THE COURT OF CHARLEMAGNE.

The emperor's dress—Meals and sleep—His literary friends—His daughters—Aix-la-Chapelle—The palace—The college—Counts of the palace—The Great Assembly—"De Villis."

CHARLEMAGNE in undress wore a linen shirt and breeches, a tunic fringed with silk, stripes of cloth swathing his legs, and leather shoes. In winter a fur jacket kept him warm. A blue cloak, and a sword with hilt and belt of gold, completed his equipment. But on grand occasions, such as high church solemnities or the reception of ambassadors, he shone out in a magnificent costume sparkling with gold and jewels. His love for the national Frank dress was so strong, that we find him only twice exchanging it for the Roman garb.

We are told that he was hunting one day with his courtiers, when a violent storm of wind and rain came on. The silks and furs of the richly

dressed train were soaked through, at which the monarch, who was dressed in simple sheep-skin, laughed heartily. On his return to the palace, he mischievously kept them in attendance on him until their fine clothes were all shrunk and ruined. And next day, directing them to appear in these same garments, he took occasion to read the poor faded dandies a lecture upon their affectation and useless luxury.

He dined off four dishes; and was very fond of roast venison, newly killed, and served up to him on the spit. At table books of history and Augustine's "City of God" were often read aloud to him. In summer, after eating a few apples at his mid-day meal, he took a simple cup of wine (he hated drunkenness), and then slept for two or three hours. At night he was very restless; and we read of him rising and dressing four or five times in a single night. He held a levee of his friends while dressing in the morning.

He was a first-rate Latin scholar, and knew something of Greek. Astronomy was one of his favorite studies. With the learned men who thronged his court, he lived on terms of the most playful intimacy. To put them more at their ease, he was known among them as David; Alcuin was Horace; Angelbert, the chancellor, a student of Greek, was Homer; another of the set, skilled in moulding verse, was Virgil. So, all royal pomp cast aside, the great monarch argued, wrote, and studied with his lettered friends. Nor did he disdain to take lessons from them. Peter of Pisa taught him grammar; Alcuin gave him logic and astronomy; and, when in his old age a new way of writing came into fashion, the rude Frankish characters being exchanged for Roman letters, he had models kept near his pillow that he might practise the new art when he awoke at night.

The daughters of Charlemagne, whose bad conduct was the source of much grief to him, were occupied at home in the simple domestic duties of the household, stitching, cooking, and cleaning the rooms. But when the emperor left home, it was his custom to carry his sons and daughters in his train wherever he went.

Aquis Granum, now Aix-la-Chapelle, a city of Rhenish Prussia near the Belgian frontier, was the northern capital of Charlemagne's empire. The town was founded by the Romans; and the French name, by which we call it, is a compound, denoting its sulphur springs (Aix for Aquæ) and the chapel built there by Pepin. This fertile basin, with its pleasant stream and sheltering hills, was a favorite resort of Charlemagne, who spared no pains to make the city worthy of his fame.

Here he resolved to build a palace, which should be the wonder of the world. The pope had given him some magnificent porphyry pillars and mosaic pavements from Ravenna, such as France could not produce.

Gathering workmen from every part of the Continent, he soon beheld a splendid building, with gates of the finest brass, and marble walls which enclosed, among many halls and galleries, a library, a college, a theatre, and baths, in some of which a hundred persons could swim at once. On all sides clustered houses for the courtiers, and large rooms warmed with stoves, where all classes might at all times find shelter and comfort. A wooden gallery connected this great building with the chapel of the city.

The Royal College was under the special charge of the great Alcuin. And the library there collected, preserved for modern times some rare and precious volumes of the ancient literature. Under the fostering care of Charlemagne, education, radiating from this centre, began to flourish everywhere; and soon every province could boast its college or school. Every monastery endowed by the emperor was bound to maintain a school. Among the seminaries of France, Orleans was then specially noted.

Although Charlemagne took the advice of the wise and brave around him in cases of difficulty, yet he does not seem to have had any regular privy council. But, under the imperial roof, often presided over by the great man himself, sat the highest court in the realm. There the principal courtiers, no mere gaily-dressed flutterers round a throne, were obliged to work as hard as the busiest lawyers, in deciding knotty cases of appeal. They were called the Counts of the Palace.

The Great Assembly of the Franks met twice a year. Of these meetings, however, the earlier was the more important—the second being rather used to overtake the arrears of state business. The field, thronged with ambassadors from almost all the lands in Europe, was a glittering scene. Here the laws were framed and the taxes for the next year decreed. For days and nights before the meeting of the council, groups of vassals, laden with bags of grain, or leading horses by the head, poured in from the country, which was budding with early spring, to pay in money or in kind their yearly gifts, corresponding to our modern rents.

The Capitularies of Charlemagne—that is, the enactments which he framed with the aid of the nobles and the bishops—descend to most minute details. One headed "De Villis" is particularly interesting from the glimpses it gives of the country life at the manors of the emperor. The *judex* (steward) is enjoined to look after the bees and the poultry, the fish-ponds and the byres. Things made with the hand, such as butter, mead, preserved meat, wine, and vinegar, were to be very clean. Hawks' nests were to be preserved; and swans, peafowl, pheasants, and geese to be kept for ornament. The servants were not to idle at fairs; the accounts were to be accurately kept; and a general taking of stock was to usher in the New Year.

The fruit-trees and flower-gardens received special notice. Apples, pears, plums, chestnuts, filberts were to be grown. A list of some seventy names of flowers and herbs, headed with roses and lilies, appears amongst the enactments. The gardener was to have Jove's beard (which we call house-leek) growing on the roof of his cottage. The cars were to be covered with well-sewed hides, so that in passing a river they might not let in water. Flour and wine, a shield and lance, a bow and arrows, were to be stowed in every vehicle. And Sunday was to be strictly kept. On that day none were permitted to work in field or garden, to hunt, to wash clothes, to sew, or to shear. The law courts did not sit; and no cars might be used except for three purposes—warlike expeditions, the carriage of victuals, and the burial of the dead.

GREAT NAMES OF THE FOURTH PERIOD.

ALCUIN, born at York—pupil of Bede—lived much at the court of Charlemagne, whom he taught—wrote poetry, theology, and elementary science—died in 804.

PAUL WARNEFRID (about 740–799), called the Deacon—an Italian—connected first with the Lombard Desiderius—taught Greek at the court of Charlemagne—a poet and historian—chief work, "History of the Lombards."

EGINHARD, an Austrasian Frank—secretary of Charlemagne—wrote a life of that monarch and other historical works—thought to have died about 841.

JOHN SCOTUS ERIGENA, born in Ireland—the only learned layman of the Dark Ages—lived chiefly in France about the middle of the ninth century—theology and metaphysics were his favorite studies—died in 875.

ALFRED, king of England—translator of the Psalms, Bede's History, Æsop's Fables, etc., into Saxon—like Charlemagne, a great patron of learned men—died 901 A.D.

AVICENNA, or ABEN SINA, born near Bokhara, 980 A.D.—a great Arabian physician and philosopher—for centuries his great medical work, "The Canon," continued to be the standard authority even in Europe—author of nearly one hundred works—chief philosophical work, "The Remedy."

GUIDO D'AREZZO, born at Arezzo in Tuscany, in end of tenth century—a Benedictine monk—famous as the inventor of our musical notation—his work "Micrologus" describes his plan of writing and teaching music—died in middle of eleventh century.

FIFTH PERIOD.

FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE CRUSADES TO THE ESTABLISHMENT OF SWISS INDEPENDENCE.

CHAPTER I.

THE CRUSADES.

		A.D.
Central Points:	JERUSALEM TAKEN BY CRUSADERS	1099
	RETAKEN BY SALADIN	1187
	RESTORED TO THE CHRISTIANS BY TRUCE	1229
	TAKEN BY THE TURKS	1239

Origin of the Crusades—Peter the Hermit—Two general councils—The first rush—Battle of Dorylaeum—Siege of Antioch—Capture of Jerusalem—Godfrey made king—Templars and Hospitallers—St. Bernard—March of Conrad III.—Disasters of the second Crusade—Saladin takes Jerusalem—Siege of Acre—Great muster of troops—March of Fred. Redbeard—Capture of Acre—False glare of the Crusades—Deeds of Richard I.—End of third Crusade—The Teutonic knights.

JERUSALEM, the cradle of the Christian faith, suffered cruel insults at the hands of the Mahometans. Hakem, third of the Fatimide caliphs of Egypt, himself aspiring to the honors of a god, razed the Church of the Resurrection in 1009, and spared no pains to destroy the very rock-cave, which was pointed out as the Holy Sepulchre. The Turks then seized the city; Christian pilgrims, flocking thither in crowds of thousands during the eleventh century, were cruelly maltreated by them. No Christian could pass the gates without first paying a piece of gold to these Tartar conquerors. Every day brought back to Europe weary palmers, who had been scoffed at and spat upon by the Infidels. This was borne for a time, but soon grew intolerable; and the indignation, burning deep and long in the heart of Christendom, found its first great utterance in the wild eloquence of Peter the Hermit.

This man, said to have been a native of Amiens, was a soldier in his youth. Upon the death of his wife, he retired broken-hearted to a hermit's cell, from which, however, his innate love of change drove him a pilgrim to the Holy Land. Returning thence full of anger at the degradation of the sacred spot, he obtained leave from Pope Urban II. to call all true Christians to arms; and as he passed through Italy and

France, a fleshless spectre, clad in mean raiment, with bare head and feet, and staggering under a heavy crucifix, his fierce war-cry woke an echo in millions of hearts.

Within the same year, two general councils were called by the pope—one at Placentia, the other at Clermont, in Auvergne. At the latter, both the pope and the hermit spoke in words of fire. With one voice all who heard cried out in the old French, "*Dieu li volt!*"—"It is the will of God!" and few there were who left the old market-place on that day without a red cross on the shoulder, to mark them as soldiers in the sacred cause.

1095 A.D.

THE FIRST CRUSADE.

(1096-1099.)

The first movement of the Crusaders was a mad and aimless rush. A rabble of 300,000, comprising not men alone, but women and children, and even some stricken with deadly disease, gathered under Peter, and a soldier called Walter the Penniless. They passed through Germany with no achievement but the murder and robbery of thousands of Jews. Their plundering roused the rage of the Hungarians and Bulgarians, who set upon them; and it was with sorely thinned and broken ranks that they reached Constantinople, where Alexis reigned. He persuaded them to fix their camp upon the Asiatic shore of the Bosphorus. Moving thence towards Nice, in Bithynia, they were, all but a very few, cut to pieces by the Turks.

The great captain of the first Crusade (War of the Cross), was Godfrey of Bouillon, or Boulogne, the Duke of Basse-Lorraine. There were, besides, among the chiefs, Robert of Normandy, Hugh, the brother of the French king, Stephen of Blois, and Bohemund of Tarentum. Nine months were consumed in mustering the great army of more than half a million, and leading it by different routes to Constantinople. Having crossed the strait, the Crusaders moved, with horns blowing and drums beating, upon Nice, which fell after a siege of seven weeks.

At Dorylaeum was fought one of the greatest cavalry battles the world has ever seen. Considerably more than 100,000 Turkish horse, with curved sabres and light *djereeds*, were scattered before the lances of the Christian knights. Soliman, Sultan of the Turks, fell back in rapid flight. But all this glory was purchased by much suffering. Thirst was the worst woe that befell the Christians; we are told that once, when water was found after days of scorching drought, 300 of them drank till they died. They threaded the rocky wilds of Taurus, fainting with the weight of their armor under the burning sun; and at last saw, set in the emerald meadows that line the Orontes, the fair turrets of the Syrian Antioch.

Here the war raged anew. The Christian knights vied with one another in valorous deeds. Godfrey one day cut his foe in two; one half fell into the river, the other sat still on horseback—"by which blow," quaintly says Robert the Monk, "one Turk was made two Turks." The siege was pushed on amidst the worst miseries of winter, famine, and disorganization, until, by the treachery of a Syrian officer, the Crusaders were enabled, one dark, stormy night, to surprise the town. A Saracen army, led by Kerboga, Prince of Mosul, advancing to the rescue, was then repulsed with great slaughter; and Bohemund, the son of Robert Guiscard, was made prince of the captured city.

After a delay of some months at Antioch, the Crusaders, now reduced to 20,000 foot and 1500 horse, moved southward towards Jerusalem. They, ought to have reduced the great stronghold of Acre, with its vast granaries, as they passed; but, eager to crown their enterprise with the capture of the Holy City, they contented themselves with extorting a promise from the Emir of Acre, that, if Jerusalem fell, he would give them up his keys. At last the capital of Palestine, lovely even in her desolation, rose in their view. The knights, springing from their 1099
saddles, wet the turf with tears of mingled joy and grief. A.D.
Barefooted and weeping the little band advanced. Under a sky of burning copper, with no water in the pools and brooks, they fought for five long weeks before Godfrey and his stormers stood victorious within the walls. The massacre of 70,000 Moslems, and the burning of the Jews in their synagogue, stained the glory of the conquerors.

A kingdom of Jerusalem being then founded, Godfrey was elected king. But modestly and wisely he chose rather the humbler title of Baron of the Holy Sepulchre. The opening of his reign was signalized by the battle of Ascalon, in which he defeated the Sultan of Egypt. After this victory, which closed the first Crusade, many of the actors in the great drama went home. Among these was Peter the Hermit, whose checkered life found a close in the abbey of Huy, founded by himself on the bank of the Meuse.

The last great act of Godfrey's life was the enactment of a code of feudal laws, called the "Assize of Jerusalem." He had scarcely shaped these, and seen their earliest working, when death cut him off, in the first year of his reign.

THE SECOND CRUSADE.

(1147-1149.)

Before the second Crusade began, forty-eight years passed, during which the infant kingdom of Jerusalem was upheld chiefly by two orders of military monks—the Hospitallers and the Templars. The former, whose

scarlet surcoat was embroidered with a silver cross, derived their name from their being at first attached to an hospital, dedicated to St. John. The Templars, afterwards so haughty and powerful, calling themselves so from their residence close to the site of Solomon's Temple, sprang from a little society of nine knights, who bound themselves by an oath to pass chaste and humble lives, in constant war against the enemies of the faith. They received the sanction of Baldwin II. in 1118.

When the news reached Europe that Edessa, beyond Euphrates, one of the strong outposts of the faith against the encroaching Moslems, had fallen before Zenghi, Prince of Mosul, the smoldering fire began to blaze anew. St. Bernard took the place which had been filled by Peter the Hermit.

Born in Burgundy in 1091, Bernard became a monk in early youth. As Abbot of Clairvaux, in Champagne, he was soon noted for his austerity and abstinence. Coarse bread, beech-nuts, and even the leaves of trees, formed at one time the only food of his monks and himself. But the spirit within lived and glowed, in spite of pale cheek and wasted frame. And when, on the hillside at Vezelai, in 1146, he addressed a countless crowd of French knights and nobles, urging them to another Crusade, the old war-cry, "It is the will of God," rang through the air, and so great was the rush for the Cross, that he and his priests were obliged to tear up their vestments in order to supply the eager soldiery with the sacred symbol.

His eloquence enlisted in the war Louis VII. of France, and Conrad III. of Germany. Their combined armies, amounting to 300,000, took the same route as the first Crusaders had taken—through Germany and Hungary right on to Constantinople, and so over the straits into Asia. But the schemes of Manuel, the Emperor of the East, who was especially unfriendly to Conrad, so far reduced the strength of the Germans by cutting off their supplies, that they fell an easy prey to the Saracens among the mountains of Cappadocia. Conrad returned in despair to Constantinople.

The troops of Louis, passing in the deep winter of 1148 to the banks of the Meander, gained a slight triumph over the Saracens. But this success was soon eclipsed by a decided check near Laodicea. When they found the gates of Attalia, where they had hoped to find a refuge, shut against them, the heroic army, lessening every day, struggled on, storm-beaten and famine-worn, to Antioch. The entry of the two monarchs into Jerusalem—Conrad had now joined Louis—was a gleam of bright promise, reviving the hope of the Crusaders. But their first undertaking, the siege of Damascus, proved a miserable failure, and the second Crusade closed in gloom. Nearly forty years elapsed before the third began.

THE THIRD CRUSADE.

(1189–1192.)

When the news came that Jerusalem had fallen before Saladin, the great Sultan of Egypt, and that the golden cross, which had glittered for eighty-eight years on the Mosque of Omar, marking its transformation into a Christian church, had been trampled in the streets, Europe for the third time girt herself for war. **1187 A.D.**

First, from the Italian ports there sailed out a large fleet, thronged with eager soldiers, who at once upon their arrival proceeded to aid the Christians in the siege of Acre, which had yielded to Saladin.

But a greater movement followed. The three great western princes took the Cross—Richard I. of England, Philip Augustus of France, and Frederic Barbarossa (Redbeard) of Germany. A tax, called Saladin's tithe, was laid upon Christendom to meet the expenses of the war. As was usual in all the Crusades, complete absolution from sin was promised to every soldier who struck a blow at the infidel.

While Richard and Philip were filling their purses and mustering their armies, Frederic, starting from Ratisbon, pushed by the usual land-route to Adrianople, crossed the Hellespont, and pierced right through Asia Minor, routing the Turks, and conquering Iconium. But his career of victory was stayed in Cilicia, where he died, while bathing one summer day in the river Selef. A remnant of his army—some five thousand ragged and footsore men—reached the camp of the besiegers before Acre. **1189 A.D.**

The siege of that stronghold was pushed on in spite of terrific losses. For two long years a vague hope of aid from Europe upheld the hearts of the Christians. The Turkish garrison was renewed again and again, whenever the sea was left open. Nine battles were fought under the shadow of Mount Carmel with changing success. Thousands on thousands of the crusading soldiery laid down their lives before the ramparts; but still the camp was filled with new hosts, burning with martial fury.

The armies of Richard and Philip, amounting together to one hundred thousand, were transported by sea to the Holy Land, the former sailing from Marseilles, the latter from Genoa. They spent the winter together at Messina in Sicily, not, indeed, on the most friendly terms. Richard delayed, besides, at Cyprus, where he was married. He dethroned Isaac, king of that island, for treating some of his shipwrecked sailors badly. It was, therefore, nearly a year after their setting out that the royal warriors appeared before Acre; Philip first, Richard shortly afterwards. New vigor stirred in the besiegers; and **1190 A.D.**

Saladin must have trembled for his hold upon the key of Syria, when he saw the plain whitened with a new camp of many thousand tents. One glimpse of the great Saracen's character must not be passed by. Even at so great a crisis, this generous foe sent frequent presents of pears and snow, to cool the fever of which Richard and Philip lay sick in their tents. Ere long the broken ramparts of the city yielded to the Crusaders, and the sultan fell back towards the south.

The story of the Crusades, and of this third one especially, has been colored with the gayest tints of romance ; and we are apt to be dazzled by a deceptive glare in reading of the noble achievements of the soldiers of the Cross. The truth is, that the crusading armies were filled with the worst ruffians in Europe. There were, no doubt, noble exceptions. But very few were inspired by motives of real piety. The hope of plunder and a reckless love of change were the mainsprings of the war. The Cross met the eye everywhere throughout the camp, on banners, shields, and surcoats, sparkling over tent-doors, and shapen into the hilts of swords ; but it was not in the hearts of the soldiery ; and this being so, it is no wonder that the worst vices were rampant among them, and that all shame was cast aside.

Soon after the fall of Acre, Philip returned to Europe. Richard then pushed southward along the sea-coast, fighting his way for eleven days amid the unceasing rattle of the brass kettle-drums, that called up new hosts of Saracens to the front. He found Joppa and Ascalon dismantled. Next spring he advanced within twenty miles of Jerusalem ; but turned away from what most likely would have been the crowning achievement of the war. The sad havoc already made in his ranks, the discontent of his allies, and news from England of danger menacing his crown, are assigned as reasons for this step. On his way home falling into the hands of the Duke of Austria, who had an old grudge against him, he lay in secret prisons for nearly two years.

1192 A.D.

Richard's departure from Palestine was the signal for a peace which promised to be lasting ; but the death of Saladin, in 1193, gave a new turn to the history of the Holy Land.

The rise of the Teutonic Order dates from the third Crusade, a few generous knights having joined to tend the sick and wounded in the camp before Acre.

CHAPTER II.

THE CRUSADES—(Continued).

Fourth Crusade begins—Berytus taken—Siege of Thoron fails—Foulque—Delay at Venice—Blind old Dandolo—Capture of Zara—Movement on Constantinople—The Siege—Baldwin made emperor—The Boy Crusade—Frederic II. of Germany—Concludes a truce—Crowns himself king—St. Louis—In Egypt—Dies in Tunis—Edward I. of England—The ruin of Acre.

THE FOURTH CRUSADE.

(1195–1197.)

THE Emperor Henry VI., gaoler of Cœur de Lion, had his eye upon Sicily as a key to the conquest of the Byzantine Empire. To cloak his real design he organized a fourth Crusade.

Reserving a body of forty thousand under his own command, to execute his secret schemes on Sicily, he divided the rest of his forces into two parts. One, crossing the Danube, marched to Constantinople, and sailed in Greek ships to Acre. The others, setting out from the Baltic ports, did not reach Palestine till some time later.

The Syrian Christians, just beginning to taste the sweets of peace, at first looked coldly on their brethren, who came, sword in hand, from Europe. But a movement of the Saracens, before whom Joppa fell, scattered all thoughts of disunion. Banding together, the Christian soldiery waited only for their friends, who were making the long sea-passage, and then besieged Berytus (Beirout). The capture of this great city enriched the Crusaders, and set free nine thousand Christian prisoners, who had long lain in its dungeons.

The arrival of a third army, despatched by Henry, when he had succeeded in his designs on Sicily, raised high hopes that Jerusalem would soon be freed from the Infidels. But the approach of winter delayed the great enterprise.

The siege of Thoron, on the coast, was undertaken instead. German miners tunnelled through the rock on which it stood; and the walls were shaking when the besieged sued for quarter. It was refused; and with the courage of despair the defence began again. The tide turned. Rumors of an advancing Saracen host struck terror into the hearts of the Crusaders. In the dead of night their leader fled, and next day saw the whole army, scared by a storm of thunder and lightning, and fiercely hunted by their infidel foes, scattered in headlong flight on the way to Tyre.

This was the miserable end of the fourth Crusade. Other operations might have been undertaken; but the death of the Emperor Henry, whose gold had been the mainstay of the war, brought the adventurers home, to see what might be picked up on less distant fields.

THE FIFTH CRUSADE.

(1198–1204.)

Pope Innocent III. sent forth letters to stir up a new Crusade. But these would have had little influence, especially in France, which lay under an interdict, if they had not been backed by the simple eloquence of Foulque, curate of a little town on the Marne. At a great tournament he preached the crusade with such a trumpet-tongue, that the lists were deserted by the knights, who thronged to take the badge of the Holy War.

With the Doge of Venice, "the blind old Dandolo," a bargain was struck for ships, and Venice was named as the place of muster. But, when the day of muster came, so few of the barons had arrived, that they were not able to raise the sum demanded for the hire of the

1202 A.D. ships. In their distress they accepted the offer of the Doge, to free them from all claims, if they would retake for Venice the revolted city of Zara. It lay in Dalmatia, and had sought the protection of the Hungarian king. But in five days it was forced to yield to the arms of the Crusaders.

Having once turned aside from the real object of the expedition, they easily took a second step of the same kind. Isaac, Emperor of the East, having been deposed and blinded by his brother Alexius, his son, another Alexius, came to the crusading chiefs, imploring help. Some were for sailing instantly to Palestine; but a stronger party resolved to grant the aid. And so a magnificent fleet, sweeping down the Adriatic and up the Ægean, anchored within sight of the glittering turrets of Constantinople.

Fixing their camp at Scutari, on the Asiatic side, the Crusaders prepared to pass the rapid Bosphorus. The knights crossed in flat-bottomed boats, standing lance in hand beside their horses. The opposite shore was safely occupied; and, at the same time, the Venetian galleys broke

1203 A.D. the boom across the entrance of the harbor. And then the siege began. Ever foremost in the fight was the blind old Doge, giving life and spirit to every movement of the besiegers. For eleven days (July 7–18) there was a feeble resistance, until Alexius, the usurper, fled with all the gold he could lay his hands on.

Isaac was restored to his throne; but, a quarrel arising between the Crusaders and the Greeks, war began anew. A second siege of Constantinople ended in the complete triumph of the besiegers. Baldwin, Count of Flanders, was elected emperor over one-fourth of the eastern dominions, for Isaac and his son were both dead. The remaining shares were divided between the republic of Venice and the barons of France.

THE BOY CRUSADE.

One of the strangest sights of the Middle Ages was the Boy Crusade of 1212.

A shepherd-boy, Stephen of Vendome, gave out that God, in a vision, had bestowed on him bread, and had sent him with a letter to the King of France. Round him gathered thirty thousand children of about twelve years. Boys were there, and girls in boys' clothes, on horseback and afoot. The tears and prayers of their parents could not turn them from their mad design. The strange flame spread through all France; from castle and from hut the little ones fled to follow the car of Stephen. With wax candles in their hands, clad in pilgrim's dress, they moved, singing hymns, over the hot, dusty plains of Provence, upheld through all the toils and terrors of the way by the wild hope that the waters of the sea, drying up before them, would open a path to the Holy Land. Robbed by the way, they were yet more pitilessly cheated in Marseilles.

Two merchants agreed to take them to Palestine, for the love of God, as the canting scoundrels said. The children set sail in seven ships. Two of these were wrecked, and all on board lost. The other five bore their precious freight to Egypt, where all were sold as slaves. It is some consolation to know that the rascal merchants were soon after hanged in Sicily.

About the same time two armies of children, gathering in Germany, crossed the Alps to Genoa and Lombardy, where they were scattered and lost, very many of these, too, falling into the cruel hands of slave-dealers.

THE SIXTH CRUSADE.

(1227–1229.)

The next great movement, passing over the attack on Damietta in 1219, where the Christians suffered heavily, was headed by the Emperor Frederic II.

Urged by Pope Gregory IX., the emperor embarked for the Holy Land; but discontent among his troops, or, if we are to believe some, a severe fit of sickness, turned him back, after he had been at sea only three days. The furious pope excommunicated him; but next year, **1228** in spite of the pontiff's continued ill-temper, he set sail for **A.D.** Palestine, induced chiefly by the offered alliance of the Sultan of Egypt.

The wrath of the pope, following him to Palestine, estranged from him all the clergy of that land. Nevertheless, he followed up his plans with consummate skill, and won from his friend, Malek Kamil, the Sultan, by

fair words and good fellowship, what so much blood had been spilled to gain. A truce for ten years was made between the princes.

1229 A.D. Jerusalem, Bethlehem, and all the towns from Joppa to Ptolemais were given up to Frederic, almost the only stipulation being that the Mosque of Omar should remain open to Moslem worshippers. This gaining of the object for which the Crusaders had striven from the first, ought to have filled Christendom with joy; but a sullen silence hung upon the clergy. And the excommunicated prince, entering Jerusalem in triumph with his Teutonic knights, was forced, for want of a priest to perform the ceremony, to place the crown on his head with his own hands. His reign in the East was short, for the schemes of the unforgiving pope against his empire in Europe led him to return in haste to Italy.

THE SEVENTH CRUSADE.

Louis IX. of France, one of the few monarchs honored with the title of Saint, led the seventh Crusade. Jerusalem had again become the prey of the infidels. As he left the French shore with a large force, the notes of a sacred anthem rose from the ships.

After spending the winter at Cyprus, where his army wasted their strength in riotous living, he anchored before Damietta late in spring. Leaping, sword in hand, into the sea, amid a deadly rain of arrows, the brave king led the way to the shore. The panic-struck Moslems left Damietta to its fate.

But pestilence began to thin the ranks of the Crusaders; and, when Louis moved inland to Mansourah, a sudden rally of the flying foe met his straggling files. The death of his brother and the flower of his army made his dearly-bought victory worse than a defeat. A retreat to Damietta was resolved on; but at the village of Minieh, Louis, who

1250 A.D. might have escaped, but nobly refused to leave his broken force, was made prisoner. Nor was he released until he agreed to restore Damietta, and to pay four hundred thousand golden pieces. He lingered at Acre for four years longer, until the death of his mother obliged him to return to France.

THE EIGHTH AND LAST CRUSADE.
(1270–1272.)

Sixteen years later, a Crusade left France, bound, not for Palestine, but for Africa—the grand object of St. Louis being to convert the Prince of Tunis with the sword.

The Moslem troops gave way; but a deadlier foe descended upon the French host, when plague, made worse by the unburied corpses, began its ravages. Among others, the king sickened and died.

Edward of England, afterwards Edward I., was the last of the crusading princes. Arriving in Africa to find Louis dead, he lost no time in leading his little force to the Holy Land. But the glory of the war was past. A march into Phœnicia, and a massacre of the Moslems at Nazareth, were almost his only doings. His headquarters were at Acre. The stab of a poisoned dagger—we are told that his wife saved him by sucking the wound—warned him to leave the land; and, after having spent in all some eighteen months of aimless enterprise, he returned to England to conquer Wales and vex Scotland.

Acre, which, after the loss of Jerusalem, was the centre of the European power in the East, grew to be a disgrace to the name of Christianity. But its lust and riot were buried in its ruins, when, after a siege of thirty-three days, the heavy engines of Sultan Khalil pounded its strong defences to dust, and opened the way for the Mameluke stormers. Sixty thousand Christians were slain or enslaved; and of the few who escaped to their ships, the greater part perished in the waves before they could reach the friendly coast of Cyprus. **1291** A.D.

CHRISTIAN KINGS OF JERUSALEM.

	A.D.
Godfrey of Boulogne	1099
Baldwin I.	1100
Baldwin II.	1118
Fulk of Anjou	1131
Baldwin III.	1144
Amauri	1162
Baldwin IV.	1174
Sibyl—then his son	
Baldwin V.	1185
Guy de Lusignan	1186
Henry of Champagne	1192
Amauri de Lusignan	1197
Jeanne de Brienne	1209
Emperor Frederic II.	1229–39

CHAPTER III.

THE ALBIGENSES.

Central Point: THE BATTLE OF MURET, 1213 A.D.

Innocent III.—The Albigenses—Their doctrines and name—Outbreak of war—Dominic Guzman—Capture of Beziers—Of Carcassonne—The Castle of Minerva—Of La Vaur—Battle of Muret—Prince Louis—Death of Montfort—Peace of Paris—Political aim of the Crusade.

THE Papacy reached its noonday under Innocent III., who wore the tiara from 1198 to 1216. He it was who brought John to lay the crown of England at the foot of the papal chair. But we have here to speak briefly of his dealings with a nobler race than such as John—the Albigenses of southern France.

Among the vines of Languedoc dwelt a people who spoke the rich musical Provençal, in which the troubadours sang of love and war. This intelligent and accomplished race looked with contempt on the vices of their clergy, as well they might, for their bishops were *roués* of high rank, and their curates mere ignorant hinds, taken from the trencher or the plough. Hungering after a deeper teaching and a holier discipline than was common in their days, they scorned the dry husks of Rome; and drawing aside from the established pale, formed themselves into a separate religious society, in which they strove to realize on earth the divine ideal of the Church, as a holy nation, a peculiar people, a brotherhood of saints.

With some peculiar tenets of their own, closely resembling those of the ancient Manichees, and which subjected them, not altogether without ground, to the charge of a heretical tendency, they were yet in some points faithful witnesses for the truth, and pioneers of that great Reformation struggle that was yet to come. In an age of rampant superstition and lifeless formalism, they testified, both by word and deed, for the spirituality of religion, and of the worship of God; and even their errors were probably in large measure only an excessive reaction against the prevailing evils of the times. They denied the doctrine of the real corporeal presence. They denounced all images as idols. Their worship was simple and unadorned; and sumptuous ceremonial and gorgeous priestly vestments were alike eschewed.

The holy volume lay open on the table, which, in their places of worship, supplanted the pompous altar; and the simple preaching of the word formed the most prominent feature of the service. They abounded in mortifications and fastings, and were distinguished, even by the confession of enemies, by a strictness of life which was then rare, and which

went the length even of an ascetic severity. They received the name Albigeois, or Albigenses,* from the town of Albi. They have been often classed, and, save for the serious heretical leaven above referred to, not unworthily, with the Waldenses, who cherished the truths of Christianity in singular simplicity and purity during long ages of darkness, among the valleys of Piedmont.

Innocent, looking jealously upon these men, sent monks to watch them. One of these legates was stabbed to death by a retainer of Raymond, Count of Toulouse. And then the war blazed out. **1208 A.D.**

Dominic Guzman, a Spanish monk, took the lead in stirring up this Crusade. In his dealings with the poor villagers of Languedoc, we trace the first sign of that terrible engine of the Romish Church, the Inquisition, which began its deadly working formally in 1223 under Gregory IX., and continued to scorch Italy and Spain with its baleful fires until the close of the eighteenth century.

Wearing a cross on the breast instead of the shoulder, the Crusaders, encouraged by the most unbounded promises of absolution from sin, moved with joy from all parts of France to a field of plunder and bloodshed so near and so promising. The main body of the army descended the valley of the Rhone, entering Languedoc by the Mediterranean shore. Tumultuous mobs, armed with clubs and scythes, followed in their track.

When he saw the terrors of war approaching, the Count of Toulouse, cringing to the legate, underwent sore humiliation to prove his penitence. But his nephew, young Raymond Roger, showed a bolder front. Dividing his forces between his strongest cities, Beziers and Carcassonne, this young noble withdrew to the latter to await the attack. The citizens of Beziers made a hot dash upon the besiegers as they were marking out a camp. But an overwhelming force driving back the *sortie*, pressed in through the open gates, and remained masters of the city. And then began a terrific scene of blood. Arnold Amalric, the legate, was asked by some officers how they were to know the heretics from the true sons of Rome. Satan might be proud of his reply. "Kill them all," said he, "the Lord will know well those who are his." Sixty thousand were slain, and the town was burned to ashes. **1209 A.D.**

Carcassonne held out until the water began to fail. The garrison escaped by an underground passage, nine miles long. Raymond Roger, surrendering, died in prison within three months; and his territories were

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* They belonged properly to the sect of the "*Cathari*," or "the pure," extensively scattered over the whole of Europe during the eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth centuries.

bestowed on Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, who henceforward was the great captain of the war.

In the summer of 1210 Montfort laid siege to the Castle of Minerva, near Narbonne, which, perched on a steep crag, was looked upon as the strongest place in the land. For seven weeks the Albigenses held out; but then their cisterns ran dry. Led to hope that their lives

1210 A.D. would be spared, they gave up the castle. But they soon found that, if they wished to live, they must confess the doctrines of Rome to be true. A heap of dry wood, filling the courtyard, was set on fire, and more than one hundred and forty men and women leapt willingly into the flames rather than deny their faith.

The whole of that land of deep-green valleys was then ravaged by Montfort and his pilgrims, as the persecuting soldiery were called. As another specimen of the tender mercies of this trusty son of Rome, take the story of La Vaur.

This castle, lying fifteen miles from Toulouse, had long opened its hospitable gates to those Albigenses who were driven from their homes by the flames. It was looked on by the Crusaders as a very nest of heresy. Five thousand men of Toulouse, banded together as

1211 A.D. the White Company, advanced to the siege. Strange and terrible engines of war fronted the walls. One of them was the *cat*—a mediæval form of the old battering-ram. It was a great wooden tower, covered with sheepskin, from whose side a heavy beam, studded with iron claws, struck and tore at the masonry till a breach was made.

At first Montfort could not reach the wall, for as fast as he filled up the ditch the garrison cleared away the earth. At length, however, dislodging them from their subterranean passages with fire, he got the cat to work, and made a practicable breach. As the knights clambered up the ruined wall, the priests, clad in full robes, chanted a hymn of joy. When the sword and the gallows had done their deadly work, a vast crowd of the captives were burned alive.

Raymond, Count of Toulouse, at last plucked up heart to face

1213 A.D. the invaders. An alliance was formed between the Albigenses and Pedro, King of Aragon. At Muret, nine miles from Toulouse, a battle was fought, in which Don Pedro was slain, and the victory rested with Montfort. The iron-clad knights of northern France were as yet more than a match for the light horse of Spain and the defenceless infantry of the Pyrenees.

This crushing blow struck terror into the hearts of the Albigenses. The war seemed to be over, and the Crusaders went home.

In 1215 we find Prince Louis, son of Philip Augustus, taking the Cross

against the heretics. The time allotted for the pilgrimage was six weeks, during which the chief pleasures were to be living at discretion in Languedoc, pillaging houses and castles, and singing the hymn, "Veni Creator," round the burning heretics. But for that time, at least, the pleasant programme was not fulfilled, for Montfort took good care to get Louis as quickly and quietly as possible out of the land which he had conquered for himself. Toulouse and Narbonne were the two capitals of Montfort's rule.

The citizens of the former revolted, inspired with new cour- **1218** age on the return of Count Raymond. In the attempt to re- A.D. take the city, Simon de Montfort was killed by the blow of a great stone on the head.

Still the war continued with the same terrible bloodshed, under the same pretence of religious zeal. But the Albigenses grew weaker. Raymond VI. died in 1222, worn out by care and age. Seven years later, his son, Raymond VII., yielded up all his territory **1229** to the King of France, receiving back a part to be held as a A.D. fief. This arrangement was called the Peace of Paris. Some vain struggles followed, for the spirit of the Albigenses was yet alive, though sorely crushed. However, the final ratification of the peace in 1242 completed the conquest of Languedoc.

This was not only a religious persecution, but had a distinct political aim. Guizot well describes it as the re-establishment of the feudal system in the south of France, when an attempt had been made to organize society there on democratic principles. So completely was the nationality of the Albigenses trampled out, that their beautiful tongue—the *Langue d'Oc*, the sweet *provençal* of the troubadour ballads—perished forever, as a distinct speech, from among the tongues of Europe.

THE CAPET KINGS OF FRANCE.

	A.D.
HUGH CAPET	987
ROBERT II. (the Sage)	996
HENRY I	1031
PHILIP I	1060
LOUIS VI. (le Gros)	1108
LOUIS VII. (the Young)	1137
PHILIP II. (Augustus)	1180
LOUIS VIII. (Cœur de Lion)	1223
LOUIS IX. (St. Louis)	1226
PHILIP III. (the Hardy)	1270
PHILIP IV. (the Fair)	1285

A.D.
Louis X. (Hutin)..... 1314
John..... 1316
Philip V. (the Long)..... 1316
Charles IV. (the Handsome)..... 1322

CHAPTER IV.

CONQUEST OF PRUSSIA BY THE TEUTONIC ORDER.

Central Point: THE SEAT OF THE ORDER FIXED AT MARIENBURG, 1309 A.D.

The Borussi—Occupation of Culm—The war—Removal to Marienburg—German colonists—Territory of the order—The grand masters—Luxury and vice—Battle of Tannenberg.

One of the most remarkable achievements during the heyday of chivalry was the conquest of Prussia by the few thousand knights of the Teutonic Order, which, it will be remembered, originated during the third Crusade.

Among the heaths and marshes and pine-forests, which bordered the Baltic on the south and east, the Borussi, fiercest, perhaps, of all the Sclavonic tribes, had long maintained themselves. They wore furs and coarse linen; ate horseflesh and drank mare's milk. The sun, moon, and stars were their gods; and when a chief died, his wives, slaves, arms, and horses were burned with his corpse. Their javelins and lances baffled every attempt to plant Christianity among them. They were deadly and dangerous foes of the Polish nation, whose vigorous efforts to subdue them had been all in vain for nearly four hundred years.

The fifth crusade was over, and the sixth had not yet begun. During this lull in the fighting world, the Teutonic knights, just home from the Holy Land, accepted the invitation of a Polish duke to occupy Culm on the Vistula, and turn their arms against these fierce heathen.

1228 to 1281 A.D.

Fixing their head-quarters by the Vistula, first at Culm, then at Thorn, which was built by themselves in 1231, the knights commenced a war of fifty-three years, which ended in the complete overthrow of the Borussi or Prussians. The Sword Knights of Livonia joined the banner of the Teutonic Order early in the war.

About thirty years after the conquest of the land the grand master removed the seat of the order from Venice to Marienburg, thus completing the settlement of these new lords upon Prussian soil.

Some of the native Prussian chiefs were ennobled; but the mass of the people sank into serfdom. Feudal castles studded the conquered land; and to fill the place of the thousands who had perished in the terrible war, German colonists were drafted in. The German tongue began to be

freely spoken, and a spirit of enterprise pervaded the land. The Prussians turned to their cattle-rearing with new zeal. Commerce flourished along the Baltic and on the banks of the Vistula. Neat German farms smiled everywhere around. The Baltic supplied profitable stores of fish; and the amber, gathered on the shore, drew wealth into the coffers of the state.

Unbroken, except by a wedge of Lithuania, which, north of the Niemen, touched the sea with its point, the territory of the Teutonic Order stretched along the Baltic from a good distance west of the Vistula to the southern shore of the Gulf of Finland. Running inland as far as Thorn, it included eastern and part of western Prussia, with Courland, Livonia, and Esthonia, three provinces of modern Russia. The islands of Dago and Gothland were also within the limit. The chief cities were Marienburg, Königsburg, Gdansk or Dantzic. In the first of these, which was the capital of the order from 1309 to their fall in 1466, the grand old Gothic ruins of their palace—*das Deutsche haus*—still mark the greatness of a pride long since crumbled into dust.

The grand masters lived in most magnificent state. One of them, gathering an army on the banks of the Niemen to invade Lithuania, entertained his knights at a grand banquet. Richly-dressed servants held canopies of cloth of gold over each knight as he sat at table; and, when the thirty courses of the banquet had come and gone, the guests were permitted to carry away the golden plate and cup they had just been using. Such luxury began to sap the prosperity of these soldier-monks. Vices, at first hidden within castle-walls, began to be practised more openly with little shame. With blacker vice there grew up greater arrogance. They lashed their Prussian serfs and the German settlers with such merciless severity, that the trampled races, rising in revolt, called in the aid of the gallant Poles. On one fearful field—Tannenberg, in southern Prussia—the Grand Master Ulric died with most of his knights, and 30,000 meaner soldiers. **1410 A.D.**

This blow utterly broke the power of the order. And, half a century later we find the Teutonic knights, shorn of their old splendor, sink into nothingness as the vassals of the Polish crown.

CHAPTER V.

THE SWISS WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

Central Points: BATTLE OF MORGARTEN, 1315 A.D.; BATTLE OF SEMPACH, 1386 A.D.

Old Helvetia—Rodolph of Hapsburg—Appointment of bailiffs—The meadow of Rutli—Tell and the apple—Gessler slain—The outbreak—Battle of Morgarten—The name Switzerland—The eight cantons—Battle of Sempach—Battle of Nefels—The Sempach Convention.

EARLY in the Christian era, Helvetia, which was peopled chiefly by Gallic tribes, formed a part of the Roman Empire. Then, overrun by various barbarous races, it was included in the kingdom of Burgundy the Less, and as such fell under the rule of Charlemagne. After his death it was annexed to the Romano-Germanic Empire. Conspicuous among the many small sovereignties and states, into which it was broken, even while owning a sort of dependence on the empire, were the Forest Cantons of Schweitz, Uri, and Underwalden, clustered round the southern shore of Lake Lucerne.

In 1273 Count Rodolph of Hapsburg (Hawk's Castle on the Aar in north Switzerland) was elected King of the Romans, or Emperor of Germany. He is distinguished in history as the founder of the Imperial House of Austria. Lord of many lands and towns in Switzerland, he held besides, by the free choice of the foresters themselves, the advocacy or protectorship of the Forest States. He did not allow his elevation to the imperial throne to sever the ties which bound him to the mountain-land. He spent much time among the Swiss; and the many benefits and enlarged privileges they received from him were repaid on their part by unbroken affection and unbounded trust.

But when, in 1298, his son Albert, Duke of Austria—which had been taken by Rodolph from Bohemia—was made emperor, a gloom fell upon Switzerland. It soon became clear that his design was to make himself despotic master of all the land. The Forest Cantons were placed under two bailiffs or governors, Gessler and Beringer, whose insolent tyranny grew intolerable.

Three of the oppressed foresters, Walter Fürst, Arnold von Melchthal, and Werner Stauffacher, met to plan the deliverance of their country.

1307 A.D. On a November night, in the meadow of Rutli by Lake Lucerne, these three patriots, in the presence of thirty tried friends, swore, beneath the starry sky, to die, if need were, in defence of their freedom. And all the thirty joining in the solemn vow, the coming New Year's night was fixed for striking the first blow.

Meanwhile, Gessler, the Austrian bailiff, was slain by one of the thirty, William Tell, a native of Burglen, near Altorf, and famous over all the country for his skill with the cross-bow. The romantic story, upon which, however, some doubt has been cast by modern historians, runs thus :—

Gessler, to try the temper of the Swiss, set up the ducal hat of Austria on a pole, in the market-place of Altorf, and commanded that all who passed it by should bow in homage. Tell, passing one day with his little son, made no sign of reverence. He was at once dragged before Gessler, who doomed him to die, unless with a bolt from his cross-bow he could it an apple placed on his son's head. The boy was bound, and the apple balanced. Tell, led a long way off, aiming for some breathless seconds, cleft the little fruit to the core. But, while shouts of joy were ringing from the gathered crowd, Gessler saw that Tell had a second arrow, which he had somehow contrived to hide while choosing one for his trying shot. "Why," cried the bailiff, "hast thou that second arrow?" And the bold answer was, "For thee, if the first had struck my child."

In a violent rage, Gessler then ordered Tell to be chained, and carried across the lake to the prison of Kussnacht. A storm arising when they were half way over, huge waves threatened to swamp the boat. By order of the governor, Tell, whose knowledge of the lake was remarkable, was unchained and placed at the rudder. Resolved on a bold dash for liberty, he steered for a rocky shelf which jutted into the waters, sprang ashore, and was soon lost among the mountain glens. And some time after, hiding in a woody pass within a short distance of Kussnacht, he shot the tyrant Gessler dead with his unerring cross-bow.

Thus for a few hours Tell shone out in the story of the world with a lustre that has never since grown dim. Darkness rests on his after-life. We know nothing more than that he fought in the great battle of Morgarten, and that in 1350 he was drowned in a flooded river.

The dawn of 1308 saw the foresters in arms. The Austrian castles were seized. The Alps were all alight with bonfires. Albert, hurriedly gathering an army, was advancing to crush the rising, when he was assassinated at the Reuss by his nephew, Duke John of Suabia. To their lasting honor, be it said, that the three revolted cantons refused to shelter the murderer, who lived and died miserably in Italy.

Three great battles—Morgarten, Sempach, and Nefels—mark the steps by which the brave Swiss achieved their independence.

Seven years after Albert's death, his son, Duke Leopold of Austria, resolving to pierce the mountains of Schweitz and punish the audacious herdsmen, left Zug with an army of 15,000 men, carrying great coils of rope to hang his prisoners. The pass of Morgarten, which ran for three

miles between the steep rocks of Mount Sattel and the little Lake Egeri, was the only way by which heavy cavalry could pass into the doomed canton. With the dawn of a November morning, as the sun shone red through a frosty fog, the Austrians entered the pass—a host of steel-clad knights in front, and the footmen following in close order. Their advance was known and prepared for.

Nov. 16, 1315 A.D.

Fourteen hundred herdsmen, who had commended their cause and themselves to the God of battles, lined the rocky heights. Fifty exiles from Schweitz, burning to regain an honored place among their countrymen, gathered on a jutting crag that overhung the entrance of the defile, and when the Austrians were well in the trap, hurled down great rocks and beams of wood upon the close-packed ranks. Amid the confusion, which was increased by the fog, the Swiss rushed from the heights, and with their halberts and iron-shod clubs beat down the Austrian knights in crowds. Horses plunged into the lake; many knights fell back upon the footmen, trampling them to death. It was a woful day for Austria, and for chivalry, when the steel cuirass and the knightly lance went down before the pikes and clubs of a few untrained footmen. Duke Leopold scarcely saved himself by a headlong flight over the mountains to Winterthur, where he arrived late in the evening, a haggard, beaten man.

The valor of the Schweitzers was so remarkable in this battle, and throughout the great future struggle, that the name of their canton was extended to the whole country, henceforth named Switzerland.

The three cantons renewed their solemn league of mutual defence. Lucerne joined the Confederation in 1335, Zurich and Zug in 1351; Glarus and Berne soon followed, thus completing the list of the eight ancient cantons of the infant Republic. A treaty, ratified at Lucerne, is remarkable as being a distinct acknowledgment on the part of Austria that the Swiss had triumphed, and were free. The ceaseless industry and steady economy of the mountaineers proved them worthy of the freedom they had so bravely won.

1353 A.D.

But their task was not yet done. Bent on crushing the Confederation with one terrible blow, Leopold, Duke of Suabia, one of the Hapsburg line, marched from Baden toward Lucerne. He found his way barred at Sempach by 1,300 men, who held the wooded heights round the lake. The Austrian force consisted of 4,000 horse, and 1,400 foot. At the hastily-summoned council the arrogant nobles were loud in their cry that the peasant rabble should be crushed at once, without waiting for the rest of the army. And rashly the duke gave orders for the fight. As the broken mountain-ground was

July 9, 1386 A.D.

unfit for cavalry movements, the knights, dismounting, formed a solid mass of steel, blazing in the hot harvest sun.

A short prayer, and the Swiss were formed for the charge. On they came, the gallant mountain men, some with boards on their left arms instead of shields. But the iron wall stood fast, with its bristling fence unbroken; sixty of their little band lay bleeding on the earth; the wings of the Austrian line were curving round to hem them in a fatal ring, when Arnold von Winkelried, a knight of Underwalden, dashing with open arms on the Austrian lances, swept together as many as he could reach, and, as they pierced his brave breast, bore their points with him to the ground. Like lightning the Swiss were through the gap; the Austrian line was broken; all was rout and dismay. Two thousand knights perished on the field. Duke Leopold himself died while gallantly defending the torn and bloody banner of Austria.

This brilliant success was followed, two years later, by another at Nefels, in which 6,000 Austrians were scattered by a handful of Swiss. Here, as at Morgarten, rocks flung from the heights caused the first disorder in the Austrian lines.

At the diet of Zurich, held in 1393, a general law-martial, called the Sempach Convention, was framed to bind the eight cantons together in firmer league. It enacted that it was the duty of every true Switzer "to avoid unnecessary feuds, but where a war was unavoidable, to unite cordially and loyally together; not to flee in any battle before the contest should be decided, even if wounded, but to remain masters of the field; not to attempt pillage before the general had sanctioned it; and to spare churches, convents, and defenceless females."

So Switzerland shook off the yoke of Austria; and never since, but once, when for a time Napoleon laid his giant grasp upon her, has the liberty won at Morgarten and Sempach been imperilled.

GERMAN EMPERORS OF THE HOUSES OF HAPSBURG, LUXEMBURG, AND BAVARIA.

	A.D.
RODOLPH (Count of Hapsburg)	1273
Interregnum	1291
ADOLPHUS (Count of Nassau)	1292
ALBERT (Duke of Austria)	1298
HENRY VII. of LUXEMBURG	1308
Interregnum	1313
LOUIS IV. (of Bavaria), FREDERIC III. (of Austria), reigning rivals	1314
LOUIS, alone	1330
CHARLES IV. (of Luxemburg)	1347

WENCESLAS (King of Bohemia)..... 1378
FREDERIC (Duke of Brunswick)..... 1400
RUPERT (Count Palatine of the Rhine)..... 1400
JOSSUS (Marquis of Moravia)..... 1410
SIGISMUND (King of Hungary)..... 1410

CHAPTER VI.

CHIVALRY.

Origin of chivalry—Three grades—The page—The squire—His chief duties—Creation of a knight—Chain mail—Plate armor—Picture of a knight—Overweighted—The tournament—The three elements of chivalry—Battle of Courtrai—Swiss infantry—Gunpowder and guns—The last knights—Literature of chivalry—The gentleman.

THE life of the Middle Ages is deeply colored with the brilliant hues of chivalry. There the knight is the central figure—the model of mediæval art—the hero of mediæval literature—foremost in every court-revel and greenwood sport, in the glittering tilt-yard and the dusty battle-field.

The origin of chivalry cannot be marked by any distinct date. While the Cæsars ruled in Rome, the germs of the system were alive amid the German forests. Of this Tacitus gives us a glimpse, when he writes, "that the noblest youths were not ashamed to be numbered among the faithful companions of a celebrated leader, to whom they devoted their arms and their service." Silently, but surely, the system grew, amid the warring waves which swept over Europe after the fall of the Western Empire. In the days of Charlemagne it received a powerful impulse. Then the caballarii or horsemen got a separate summons to serve in the army. But chivalry ripened to its fullest growth during the two centuries of the Crusades.

The young aspirant served in two subordinate grades before he received his spurs. First a page, and then a squire, he became at last a knight.

A boy, destined for military life, was sent at seven or eight years of age to the castle of some noble distinguished in war. There, called a page or varlet, he was at first set to attend the ladies of the mansion, to run their messages, to follow them in their walks, or to accompany them when they rode out hunting or hawking. In return for these services, which he was obliged to render with all humility and courtesy, he received instruction in the use of light weapons, in music, chess, and the chief doctrines of religion. For these last, indeed, he was oftener indebted to the kindness of his lady than to the zeal of the priest.

The page was made a squire at the age of thirteen or fourteen. His

father and mother, bearing tapers in their hands, brought him before the altar, where the priest, with words of prayer and blessing, gave him a sword and belt. The introduction of religious sanction into the ceremonies of chivalry—which, however, does not appear till after the time of Charlemagne—gave the system its greatest strength. In one sense, indeed, and that the literal, chivalry may be called the religion of the Middle Ages, for its influence kept down to some extent the growth of barbarous vices, giving a gentler and softer tone to social intercourse.

The page was the attendant of the ladies; but the squire served the men. Every squire—for in a great household there were many—had his own special work to do. One, the body-squire, was the personal attendant of his lord; another, the squire-trenchant, bore the napkins and bread at meal-time, and carved the chief dishes; a third looked after the horses, and others kept the keys of the cellar and the pantry. When the meal was over, the squires prepared the hall for dancing, and through the evening their time was fully taken up in handing round sweetmeats and spiced wine during the pauses in the pastime. The squires, too, were often called on to add to the pleasures of the evening with music and song.

These duties, however, were secondary to the more important work which lay before the squire, when the dangers of the hunting-field and the constant practice of military sports had strengthened his thews and quickened his eye. His great duty was to follow his lord to the battle or the tournament, leading the war-horse. On the high-peaked saddle was piled the armor of the knight, who, lightly dressed, rode before on a hack. When the hour of battle came, he arrayed his master in full armor, rivetting the plates with a skill which it had taken much time and pains to gain. During the fight he kept behind his lord, handed a fresh lance, led in a horse if his lord was dismounted, dashed to the rescue if he saw him hard pressed, and often bore him bleeding to a place of safety. Such were a squire's duties until he reached the age of twenty-one.

The change from squirehood to knighthood was marked with much religious pomp. Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide were the chief seasons for the creation of new knights. Having fasted and confessed all his sins, the candidate passed a night in prayer and watching. Then, having bathed, he was dressed in new robes—an underkirtle, a silk or linen vest embroidered with gold, a collar of leather, and over all the coat of arms. Proceeding to the church, he handed his sword to the priest.

A prayer was said; a vow to defend churches, widows, and orphans, and to fight for the faithful against all pagans, was taken; another prayer, and a part of the 44th Psalm was sung. The prince who was to confer the distinction then put the usual questions as to the motives of the candidate in seeking to be made a knight, and the final oath being taken, the

sword, now consecrated by the priest, was handed to the attendants. The baldric—a belt of white leather and gold—was slung round the candidate, and his golden spurs were buckled on. The prince, then drawing the sword, completed the ceremony with a blow of its flat on the neck, thus dubbing the candidate squire a knight in the name of the Trinity. A box on the ear sometimes took the place of the sword-stroke.

The dress and equipment of the knight varied much at different periods. The Roman cavalry being clad in mail, made of metal scales sewed on a leather garment, the Goths, Alans, and other barbarous tribes began to wear the same. But when the Moslem horsemen, in later times, met the troops of the West, this Roman mail was exchanged for the Saracen chain armor, formed of interlinked rings of steel. The heroes of the first Crusade wore this chain-mail, of which the great advantage was, that it allowed freer movement of the limbs. A great clumsy hauberk or tunic of steel rings hung to their knees. The head, too, was protected by a hood or cowl of chain-mail, over which was worn a low flat cap of steel. Mittens covered the hands, and pointed shoes of mail the feet. Their long iron spurs had no rowels. The clumsy sombreness of the whole equipment was hardly relieved by the bright colors of the device, shining on the three-pointed shield, which hung over the breast, or by the embroidery of the surcoat, with its ermine lining, which was worn over the hauberk. In such attire Godfrey and Tancred fought.

The horses were at first quite unprotected. But when at Dorylæum and other early battles of the Crusaders, the Turkish arrows unhorsed the knights by thousands, and slew many of them, in spite of their mailed hauberks, it became the custom to sheathe the horses in complete armor. And during the fourteenth century the chain-mail of the early knights was exchanged for armor formed of overlapping metal plates, which was found more serviceable in resisting pointed missiles.

The knight, as he appears in the hey-day of chivalry, glittering in his costly armor of steel inlaid with gold, with plume and crest and vizored helmet, wearing gauntlets instead of the old chain cuffs, his lance and mace, axe and sword and dagger all ready for the fray, presents a splendid and romantic figure, too well known to need fuller description. His robe of peace was of silk or velvet; on great occasions he wore a long scarlet cloak doubled with ermine, and a massy gold signet-ring, like that worn by bishops, glittered on his finger.

But this splendid warrior soon became of little use in the field. When it was found that the weight of a mass of iron-clad men and horses in full charge bore down everything before it, to increase the weight heavier armor was used, until both knight and horse were locked up in a little fortress of steel,—safe, indeed, from most missiles, but very harmless to an

active, light-armed foe. Those great suits of armor, at which we gaze with wonder in museums and armories, belong to the decline of chivalry; and when we think of the herculean frames that must have borne them, we should not forget that it was no uncommon thing for knights to be so lamed in their shoulders with the weight of such armor, as to be unfit for active service at the early age of thirty-five.

The tournament has been well called the link which united the peaceful to the warlike life of the knight. They were first held in France, as the French origin of the name seems to show. England and Germany soon followed the example of their neighbors. The lists, in which the encounters took place, were roped or railed off in an oval form, generally between the city and a wood. The open spaces at each end were filled with stalls and galleries for the ladies and the noble spectators.

The tilting was generally with lances, on the points of which were fixed pieces of wood, called rockets; and the great object with each knight was to unhorse his antagonist. When the heralds cried, "*Laissez aller*," off they dashed from opposite ends of the lists, and met in the centre. This rough sport often ended fatally, as when Henry II. of France got his death-wound at a joust with one of his knights. Accidents like this brought the tournament into disrepute, and soon the clergy began to set their faces against it—nominally, because it was a perilous and bloody sport—really, perhaps, because they thought that the gold and silver wasted on these spectacles of useless glitter would be safer and better in the money-boxes of the Church.

Chivalry in its fullest development was a compound of three distinct elements. It was at first a purely military institution, growing out of the warlike character of the Teutonic tribes. But a religious element was introduced about the eleventh century, when the clergy began to feel the importance of gaining a hold upon a body so great and powerful as the military order. The ceremony of creating a knight became a solemn religious scene, and among other vows he swore to protect Mother Church, and to pay faithful attention to his religious duties. Latest of the three chivalric elements was the spirit of gallantry fostered by its vows. This influence, though deeply tinged with licentiousness, helped to raise woman from the low, servile place she always holds in barbarous society, to her true position as the equal and companion of man.

The decay of chivalry came in the natural course of events, when the system had done its destined work. It was found that the ponderous knight was as useless and helpless as a log when he lay unhorsed upon the ground. A very striking instance of this—and that which sank, perhaps, most deeply into the mind of Europe at the time—was afforded by the battle of Courtrai in West Flanders, fought in 1302, between the

French and the Flemish. To quote the words of an eloquent living writer, who sketches the scene in stirring Saxon words: "Impetuous valor, and contempt for smiths and weavers, blinded the fiery nobles. They rushed forward with loose bridles; and as they had disdained to reconnoitre the scene of the display, they fell headlong, one after another, horse and plume, sword and spur, into one enormous ditch, which lay between them and their enemies. On they came, an avalanche of steel and horseflesh, and floundered into the muddy hole.

"Hundreds—thousands, unable to check their steeds, or afraid to appear irresolute, or goggling in vain through the deep holes left for their eyes, fell, struggled, writhed, and choked, till the ditch was filled with trampled knights and tumbling horses, and the burghers on the opposite bank beat in the helmets of those who tried to climb up, with jagged clubs, and hacked their naked heads." Our English archers, too, formed a force against whom heavy-armed cavalry were of little avail. At Cressy and Poictiers the cloth-yard shafts won the day.

Infantry began, toward the close of the Middle Ages, to be reckoned of some value in the field once more. In this movement the Swiss took the lead, inspired by the victory of their foot-soldiers over the chivalry of Austria; and for some centuries the Swiss foot were to be found on almost every Continental battle-field, ranged in deep battalions, bristling with pikes, two-handed swords, and spiked maces, which bore the poetic name of morning stars.

But it was gunpowder which really blew chivalry to pieces. Armor of proof might have been forged, and no doubt was forged, able to withstand the English shaft, or turn the edge of the Swiss broadsword; but what could resist the cannon-ball? Battles were now to be fought chiefly at a distance, no longer hand-to-hand; science began to take the place of sheer strength. The art of war was wholly changed by this invention, which is said to have been brought into Europe by the Saracens. An Arabic writer in 1249 speaks of its use in war in his own day, one hundred years before the time of Schwartz, the monk of Goslar, who is reported to have mixed the ingredients accidentally one day during some chemical experiments. A hand-cannon was at first used. In the sixteenth century a long musket, which rested on a forked stick, dealt out leaden death. At first pikemen were scattered among the musketeers to repel cavalry; but the invention of the bayonet made the musketeer a pikeman too. Since that time infantry have formed the main strength of armies.

Bayard, who fell in France in 1524, was almost the last of the *preux chevaliers* of that knightly land. The Emperor Maximilian I. is still called in Germany "*der letzte Ritter*,"—the last knight. In England, chivalry, as a system, lasted till the time of Elizabeth.

We find a brilliant reflection of chivalry in the romantic literature which grew up about the time of the Crusades. The Romance pictures the knight in his glory—splendid, but clumsy ; suave and courteous in the extreme, but very often brutal. The enchanted castle, with its beautiful and distressed captives, the monster dragons and other terrors to be overcome by the unconquered arm of the hero, were the allegorical images of evils existing in that terrible time when might was the only right, highly magnified and colored by the untaught poets who sang of them.

It is a pity to think that the knight-errant is a very doubtful character, whose picture, if ever he existed, must have been drawn from those chevaliers who travelled from tournament to tournament, claiming and receiving hospitality everywhere as citizens of the world. The Romance, owing its birth to chivalry, repaid the benefit by prolonging the life of chivalry for many years. The deeds of Arthur and Charlemagne formed the subjects of some of the earliest Romances. The *trouvères* of Normandy, the *troubadours* of Provénce, and the *minnesingers* of Suabia kept up the strain. We find it, its wild ruggedness all toned away, flowing in the melodious verse of Ariosto and Tasso, and the less musical, but not less picturesque, tales of our own Chaucer. And, in our own day, the Idylls of the King, breaking from the harp of Tennyson, tell a delighted land that the noble old music of chivalry is not yet dead.

From the Knight of the Middle Ages grew the Gentleman of modern days, the elements of character remaining the same. As the true knight of old, the true gentleman now must be religious, brave, and courteous. All who pretend to the "grand old name," without possessing these qualities, are cheats and counterfeits. But as there is no good in the world, out of which, by Satan's device, some evil is not made to grow, so from these three roots of true knighthood and gentlemanhood, strange, distorted things have sprung. From the warlike element came absurd fantastic notions of honor, and the duel, now happily all but extinct in this country. And too often the courtesy due to the weaker sex has been lost in a degrading licentiousness, whose foul breath, polluting the very word "gallantry," has turned it into a light and jesting name for a deadly sin.

GREAT NAMES OF THE FIFTH PERIOD.

ABELARD, born 1079, in Bretagne—a famous teacher of logic and divinity —5,000 students attended his lectures at once—charged by St. Bernard with heresy—author of many theological works—died near Chalons in 1142.

THOMAS AQUINAS, born 1227, at Aquino in Naples—a noble—famed for theology—chief work, "Summa Theologiæ,"—wrote also Latin hymns

—the great opponent of Duns Scotus—his followers, called Thomists, upheld the supreme efficacy of divine grace—died 1274.

CIMABUE, born 1240, at Florence—a noble—the father of modern painting—restored the study from living models—worked in fresco and distemper, for oil-painting was not yet in use—died in 1300.

JOHN DUNS SCOTUS, born about 1265—famed as a theologian—a Franciscan monk—called the "Subtle Doctor"—had great controversies with T. Aquinas about free-will and divine grace—his followers called Scotists—died in 1308.

DANTE, born 1265, at Florence—one of the Alghieri family—much engaged in political feuds—the greatest of Italian poets—chief work, "Divina Commedia," a vision of the invisible world—died at Ravenna in 1321.

PETRARCH, born 1304, at Arezzo—a great Italian poet—lived much at Avignon, at the papal court—deeply attached to a lady called Laura, whose praises are sung in his soft melodious "Sonnets"—he wrote, besides, Latin verse and prose—died 1374.

BOCCACCIO, born 1313, in Florence—the author of the earliest chivalrous poem in Italian, "La Teseide," from which Chaucer took the Knight's Tale, but more remarkable as the father of Italian prose—chief work the "Decameron," consisting of one hundred tales—died 1375.

WYCLIFFE, born in Yorkshire—professor of divinity, Baliol College, Oxon—the first English reformer—the father of English prose—famous as the translator of the Bible into English—died 1384.

FROISSART, born 1337, at Valenciennes—son of a herald-painter—for some time secretary of Queen Philippa of England—noted as a historian and poet—chief work his "Chronicle," a brilliant picture of war and chivalry in western Europe from 1326 to 1400.

CHAUCER, born 1328, in London—the first great English poet—lived at the courts of Edward III. and Richard II.—chief work, the "Canterbury Tales"—died 1400.

SIXTH PERIOD.

CHIEFLY FROM THE ESTABLISHMENT OF SWISS INDEPENDENCE TO THE REFORMATION.

CHAPTER I.

ITALY IN THE MIDDLE AGES

Central Point: RIENZI TRIBUNE OF ROME, 1347 A.D.

Rise of Italian republics—Gregory VII.—Guelphs and Ghibellines—Frederic Redbeard—Battle of Legnano—Decline of most republics—Glory of Venice—Her territory—The Council of Ten—Marino Faliero—The Foscari—Her decline—Florence—The Signoria—Feuds—Cosmo de Medici—Plot of the Pazzi—Lorenzo the Magnificent—Savonarola—Crescentius Consul of Rome—Arnold of Brescia—Popes at Avignon—Rienzi the Tribune.

EXCEPT a few scattered spots, chiefly in the south, Italy formed a part of the empire of Charlemagne; and when that great fabric fell to pieces, this, its loveliest fragment, dowered with the fatal gift of beauty, became a prey to unceasing changes, which left it what it has been ever since, a piece of patchwork on the map of Europe.

In the ninth century the ravages of Hungarians and Saracens compelled the inhabitants of Italian towns to build strong walls round their homes and market-places. The sturdy burghers then, feeling their own strength, refused any longer to brook the insolent dominion of the nobles, who were accordingly forced to retire to their castles in the country. Thus arose the famous Italian republics, whose story is the brightest page in the history of modern Italy. About the same time, and from causes somewhat similar, arose the *communes* of France, and the great free cities of the Low Countries and Germany.

A Tuscan monk, Hildebrand, who had long been Archdeacon of Rome, became pope in 1073, with the title of Gregory VII. His grand aim being to subdue the whole world to the power of the priesthood, he enacted that all rulers, even up to the emperor himself, who should dare to invest any one with an ecclesiastical office, should be excommunicated. The emperor Henry IV. of Germany, tenacious of rights long held by his fathers, among other deeds in defiance of this edict, appointed an Archbishop of Cologne. Gregory summoned him to Rome to take his trial for

such conduct. Henry wrote with his own hand a letter to the pope, announcing that he, Gregory, had been deposed by the Synod of Worms. But it was an unequal contest. The terrible thunders of excommunication, pealing from the chair of St. Peter, fell upon the devoted emperor, drove his faithless or terror-stricken chiefs from his side, and brought him in mid-winter over the snowy Alps, to make his peace with the offended pontiff.

In the courtyard of the castle of Canossa he lay, barefooted and clad in a hair-shirt, for three frosty days of January, before Gregory
1077 would grant him an audience. Yet even this humiliation was
A.D. forgotten, and the War of Investitures, as it was called, being renewed, continued to convulse Italy, until 1122, when it was closed by the Peace of Worms.

The owner of Canossa, when Henry IV. did penance there, was Matilda, Countess of Tuscany, who was one of the warmest friends the papacy has ever had. At her death she bequeathed to the Church the duchy of Spoleto, and the march of Ancona. The legality of this gift being questioned, a new quarrel sprang up between the emperors and the popes, which widened into the great feud between Ghibellines and Guelphs. These names were borrowed from two great rival German houses, the Guelphs of Bavaria, and the Hohenstaufens of Suabia, who were called Ghibellines from a corruption of Waiblingen, one of their forts on the Rems.

The Ghibellines were the friends of the emperors; the Guelphs, with whom the pope generally sided, upheld the cause of the Italian people, who were striving to rend the links that bound them to the German empire. The great struggle desolated Italy for centuries.

Frederic Redbeard, already named in the story of the third Crusade, was emperor from 1152 to 1190. His attempts to strip the Italian towns of their dearly-prized liberties kindled a war. Milan first took up arms; but after a valiant resistance it fell in 1162, and all its fine old Roman buildings, monuments of dead grandeur, were mingled with the dust. Frederic then placed over the Italian towns military governors, called *Podestas*, whose oppression kept alive the fire of revolt, which was carefully fanned, too, by the exiles of Milan. In 1167 the League of Lombardy was formed, when twenty-three Italian cities united to claim, among other privileges, the right of electing their own magistrates and making their own laws. By granting charters, and working on local jealousies, Frederic contrived to muster in opposition a league of Ghibelline cities.

For nine years war wasted northern Italy, until the decisive
1176 battle of Legnano was fought on the road from Milan to Lago
A.D. Maggiore. There, at one time of the day, the *carroccio* of Milan, a great chariot drawn by oxen, which bore the huge

flagstaff of the city, was all but captured by a fierce rush of the German horse. But when the company of death—nine hundred young Milanese, sworn to die rather than be defeated—rescued the sacred banner by a gallant charge, the fortune of the day was changed, and Redbeard narrowly escaped with his life. Seven years later, by the peace of Constance, the emperor acknowledged the right of the Republics to govern themselves, to levy their own troops, and to wall their own towns.

In the early days of these Italian Republics their chief magistrates were consuls, varying in number from two to six, whose power was checked by certain municipal councils.

Bitter jealousy of one another, blazing often into war, and within the walls unceasing discord between the nobles and the people, sapped the prosperity of the Republics. One by one they fell, petty sovereignties rising on their ruins. And it would seem as if, when these scattered points of light went out, one by one, the brilliance of Italian glory was not dimmed, but concentrated with intenser lustre in a few great survivors. Venice and Florence were stars of the first magnitude. Pisa and Genoa still burned bright, though with an inferior splendor.

In order, then, to get some idea of Italian history during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, let us rapidly glance at Venice and Florence, concluding the chapter with a glimpse of Rome during the same period.

VENICE.—Fleeing from the sword of Attila in 452, the inhabitants of Venetia, a province which lay round the head of the Adriatic, sought refuge in the clustered islets near the mouth of the Brenta. There, governed by tribunes, they and their descendants fished, made salt, and carried on a constantly-widening commerce for more than two centuries. In 697 it was found necessary, from growing jealousies, to unite all the island republics under the rule of a Duke or Doge.

Through all the changes of early Italian history these islanders maintained independence amid their lagoons, defying even the power of Charlemagne. While at war with Pepin, the son of the great Frank, they built the capital of their republic on the island of Rivo Alto, or Rialto. Thither, some years later, they carried from Alexandria the body of their patron, Saint Mark, whose lion-flag ever after floated from the topmasts of their galleys, and from the cupolas of that magnificent pile of gold and marble—the cathedral of St. Mark—which is still the crowning beauty of romantic, picturesque Venice. **809** A.D.

The glory of Venice began with the Crusades. Her position, favorable for commerce, had already led to ship-building on a large scale; and the hire of vessels to carry the Crusaders to Palestine filled her coffers with gold. Her ships brought back from Syria the silks and jewels and spices of the East. So this city of the waters, like Tyre of old, grew rich and

strong, and her merchants became princes. The same causes led to the rapid rise of her rival, Genoa, on the opposite shore of Italy. With her commerce, her manufactures, too, throve; the silks and the glass made at Venice being especially prized. Among the splendid pageants of her days of pride the most striking was the wedding of the Adriatic. Every year, on Ascension Day, the doge, accompanied by a countless fleet of black gondolas, sailing out in the great *Bucentaur*, flung a ring into the blue waters of the sea.

The Venetian territory spread at an early date round the northern shore of the gulf. Istria and Dalmatia became hers. During the fourth Crusade she gained the Ionian Islands, the Morea, and Candia; and later she extended her sway inland through Lombardy, as far as the Adda. Cyprus was conquered by her in 1480.

In 1172 the appointment of the doge and other magistrates was vested in the grand council of four hundred and eighty members. Change after change took place, until a Council of Ten secured the government to themselves. Under this unchecked oligarchy a reign of terror began. The Ten were terrible; but still more terrible were the three inquisitors—two black, one red—appointed in 1454.

1325 A.D.

Deep mystery hung over the Three. They were elected by the ten; none else knew their names. Their great work was to kill; and no man —doge, councillor, or inquisitor—was beyond their reach. Secretly they pronounced a doom, and erelong the stiletto or the poison-cup had done its work, or the dark waters of the lagoon had closed over a life. The spy was everywhere. No man dared to speak out, for his most intimate companions might be on the watch to betray him. Bronze vases, shaped like a lion's mouth, gaped at the corner of every square to receive the names of suspected persons. Gloom and suspicion haunted gondola and hearth.

Forty-ninth Doge of Venice was old Marino Faliero, elected in September, 1354. A lord, who had a grudge against the doge, stole into the banquet-hall one night when the guests were gone, and wrote upon the wooden throne some words insulting to the young and lovely wife of Faliero. Next day the writing was seen; the culprit was soon discovered. But the light punishment inflicted on him by the council so enraged the doge, that he joined in a plot to murder the chief nobles and make himself Lord of Venice. The conspiracy was discovered, and the doge was beheaded on the Giant's Staircase in April, 1355.

Another noted doge was Francesco Foscari, a man of much military genius, who ruled from 1423 to 1457. Inspired by his warlike ardor, the Venetians conquered a part of Lombardy. But the nobles grew jealous

of his popularity. His son Jacopo, charged upon suspicion with receiving bribes from the Duke of Milan, was terribly tortured three times, and driven into exile, where he died; and the old man, deposed after a government of thirty-four years, died while the great bell of St. Mark's was pealing out its welcome to his successor.

The aristocracy had then no rivals in ruling Venice. But the power of the state was decaying. The League of Cambray was formed against the island city in 1508 by the pope, the emperor, and the kings of France and Spain; and the defeat she suffered at Aignadel, in May, 1509, was a blow from which she never recovered. Her principal foes in after times were the Turks, who stripped her of Cyprus and Candia.

FLORENCE.—Florence was originally a colony of Roman soldiers. Lying, in the opening of the twelfth century, under the dominion of the Countess Matilda, it naturally became strongly attached to the popedom; and, when all the Republic cities of Tuscany took one side or other in the great struggle—pope *versus* emperor—we find Florence at the head of the Guelphic League, organized by Pope Innocent III., while Pisa headed the Ghibelline cities. But long before the days of Innocent III. the Florentines had drawn blood in the great quarrel. It was their first feat of arms. Matilda was still alive in 1113, when at Monte Cascioli the goldsmiths and weavers of the fair city met the imperial Vicar in battle, scattered his knights, and slew himself.

The strength of the state lay in the commercial spirit of the citizens. They wove in silk and wool, made jewelry, and especially followed the occupation of bankers. They transacted business with kings. Their gold florin, coined in 1252, became the standard currency of Europe. The neighboring nobles sought to be admitted as citizens; but by the city-law they were obliged to enrol themselves on the register of some trade. Thus we find the name of Dante gracing the roll of the Florentine apothecaries.

In 1250 the citizens, revolting against the rule of the Ghibelline nobles, established a magistracy styled the *Signoria*. One of the first acts of the newly-formed power was to recall the Guelph exiles to Florence. The year 1254 is known in the annals of Florence as the "year of victory," for during it they took Volterra and Pistoia. In 1406 they conquered Pisa, and in 1421 bought Leghorn from the Genoese.

It would be tedious and confusing to trace the feuds, in spite of which Florence grew great and rich. Enough to say that the Guelphs triumphed, and then split into two factions—*Bianchi* and *Neri*—white and black. Dante was a white Guelph; but, when banished with his party, the moderates, he became a Ghibelline, and died poor and broken-hearted at Ravenna.

In 1342 a leader of mercenaries, Gualtier de Brienne, Duke of Athens, became Lord of Florence,—a sad sign of the state of things within the city. In a few months, backed by his troops, he cut off the chief men of the city, and contrived to make up for himself a purse of 400,000 gold florins. But one day, when he had summoned a meeting of the citizens, more of whom he meant to slay, the burghers rose with their rallying cry, "*Popolo, Popolo,*" besieged his palace, and soon forced him to leave the Florentine territory.

The feuds of the Albizzi and the Ricci convulsed the state at the opening of the fifteenth century. Siding with the latter were the great family of the Medici.

The merchant, Giovanni de Medici, made a great fortune; and his son Cosmo, born in 1389, himself, too, a banker, took a lead in Florentine politics. The Albizzi gaining the upper hand, he was imprisoned and exiled. But he was recalled within a year. Although he held no distinct name as governor of the state, he yet continued to guide all political movements by his influence over the *Balia*—a committee of citizens, to whom all sovereignty was intrusted. And when he died, in 1464, the grateful epitaph, "Father of his Country," was graven on his tomb.

Lorenzo, the grandson of Cosmo, was born in 1448. His crippled and delicate father, Pietro, had left the government in the hands of five friends; but Lorenzo and his brother, when they came of age, took the reins themselves. The rage of the Pazzi, rich, ambitious merchants, one of whom had been among the five, being excited, an attack was made upon the brothers in the cathedral. Giuliano was slain; but

1478 A.D. Lorenzo, parrying the blow, escaped into the sacristy. The friends of the Medici then fell upon the conspirators. The archbishop and three of the Pazzi were hanged out of the palace windows.

So Lorenzo became chief of Florence, fulfilling the design of his grandfather, whose aim had been to subject the state to the Medici. The pope, Sixtus IV., enraged at the death of the archbishop, excommunicated Lorenzo, and, with the aid of the King of Naples, made war against him. After two campaigns, Lorenzo, visiting Naples, made a treaty with the king, which led to a peace with the pope. Both events were hastened by a descent of the Turks upon Otranto.

His splendid patronage of art and literature gained for Lorenzo the name of the Magnificent. Himself was no mean poet. He enriched the Laurentian library with many hundred rare manuscripts collected in Italy and the East. He turned his gardens at Florence into an academy, to which students flocked to study the antique from the exquisite sculptures gathered there. And by supporting young artists, and bestowing prizes

for works of merit, he gave an impulse to art, which made Florence the scene of some of the most brilliant triumphs ever won by brush or chisel.

In 1489 Savonarola, a Dominican monk of Ferrara, came on foot to Florence, and soon began with eloquent tongue to lash the abuses of the Romish Church. Three years later, Lorenzo, dying of gout and fever, sent to seek absolution from the brave monk; but Savonarola would not grant it unless the dying prince restored liberty to his country. Lorenzo, unwilling to do this, died unabsolved. He was then forty-four. Savonarola was burned to death in the grand square of Florence in the year 1498.

When Charles VIII. of France, crossing the Alps, invaded Italy (1494), the fair city of Florence was rudely spoiled. The magnificent library was destroyed; statues, vases, cameos were wantonly defaced, or carried off and lost. The Medici, then banished from Florence, were restored in 1512. And in the following year Giovanni, second son of Lorenzo the Magnificent, became pope under the title of Leo X. The extinction of the republic dates from 1537, when Cosmo I., one of a collateral branch of the Medici, was proclaimed Duke of Florence. In 1569 he was created by the pope Grand Duke of Tuscany.

ROME.—The names of Crescentius and Arnold of Brescia are prominent in the story of mediæval Rome.

The consul Crescentius, a man of patrician rank, made a vain effort, at the close of the tenth century, to revive the old republic. The emperor, Otho III., stormed the Castle of St. Angelo, and hanged the daring patriot. **998** A.D.

About a century and a half later, a monk, named Arnold of Brescia, was, by order of the pope, burned alive at the gate of St. Angelo, for preaching against abuses in Church and State. **1155** A.D. "Roman Republic," "Roman Senate," "Comitia of the People," were strange and dangerous words to be heard in Roman streets; and, therefore, the bold tongue that spoke them withered in the flames.

But most remarkable was the revolution of which Nicola di Rienzi was the central figure. It took place during the seventy-two years (1305–1377] spent by the popes at Avignon, to which place a French pope, Clement V., removed the papal court in 1305.

Rienzi, the son of an innkeeper and a washerwoman, was, in early youth, deeply read in the great masters of the Latin tongue. Cicero and Livy were his special favorites. His classic enthusiasm gained for him the friendship of Petrarch. He was very poor, reduced to a single coat, when he received the post of apostolic notary, which rescued him from poverty. The feuds of the noble families, Colonna, Orsini, and Savelli, filled the streets with daily riot and bloodshed. Rienzi, whose fiery eloquence made

him a man of mark in Rome, might often be seen in the centre of an eagerly attentive crowd, interpreting the words of some old brass or marble tablet, and dwelling fondly on the ancient glories of senate and people. Encouraged by the flashes of patriotic fire which from time to time burst from the enslaved people, he formed the bold design of seizing the helm of the state.

When the time was ripe, and old Stephen Colonna was absent from Rome, one hundred citizens met by night on Mount Aventine.

May 20, 1347 A.D. Next day a solemn procession, bearing three great banners, passed from St. Angelo to the Capitol. Rienzi was there, bareheaded, but clad otherwise in full armor; and on his right hand marched the papal vicar, the Bishop of Orvieto. The deep tolling of the great bell drove the nobles in alarm from Rome.

Rienzi, then elected tribune, ruled Rome for seven months. At first all went well. He was beloved at home, and honored abroad. His grand design was to unite all Italy into one great republic. Throughout the Roman territory robbers found their occupation gone; the inns were full; the buzz of commerce sounded in the markets; and the ploughman's whistle was heard in the fields. But Rienzi's vanity spoiled all. Forgetting the simple grandeur of the old tribunes, he dressed in silk and gold. Silver trumpets sounded his approach, as he rode on a white steed, amid his fifty guardsmen. The nobles, secretly gathering strength, rose in arms against him. Possessing no military genius, he speedily lost the confidence of the people. A papal bull was issued against him. When the Count of Minorbino, with one hundred and fifty soldiers, seized Rome, the alarm-bell tolled in vain. None answered the summons; and the degraded tribune hid his head within the Castle of St. Angelo, whence he soon escaped, to lead a miserable life, wandering through Italy, Germany, and Bohemia. In 1352 the emperor gave him up to the pope, and for some time he dwelt in custody at Avignon.

Two years later he was sent to Rome, by Pope Innocent VI., with the title of senator. A burst of enthusiastic welcome greeted him.

Oct. 8, 1354 A.D. But in four short months, his palace being stormed and burned by a furious mob, he was stabbed to death beside the Lion of Porphyry which guards the base of the Capitol stairs.

POPES OF THE FOURTEENTH AND FIFTEENTH CENTURIES.

	A.D.
Boniface VIII.	——
Benedict XI.	1303
Vacancy for eleven months	1304
Clement V.	1305

	A.D.
Vacancy for two years and four months	1314
JOHN XXII	1316
BENEDICT XII	1334
CLEMENT VI	1342
INNOCENT VI	1352
URBAN V	1362
GREGORY XI	1370
URBAN VI	1378
BONIFACE IX	138
BENEDICT XIII	1394
INNOCENT VII	1404
GREGORY XII	1406
ALEXANDER V	1409
JOHN XXIII	1410
MARTIN V	1417
EUGENIUS IV	1431
NICHOLAS V	1447
CALIXTUS III	1455
PIUS II	1458
PAUL II	1464
SIXTUS IV	1471
INNOCENT VIII	1484
ALEXANDER VI	1492

CHAPTER II.

THE OTTOMAN TURKS.

Central Point: SIEGE AND CONQUEST OF CONSTANTINOPLE, 1453 A.D.

Rise of the Turks—The Emir Othman—The Janissaries—First footing in Europe—Victories of Bajazet—Timour the Lame—Accession of Mahomet II.—Siege of Constantinople begins—The fire-ships—The turning-point—The great assault—Death of Constantine—Policy of Mahomet—Defeat at Belgrade—Crimea taken—Otranto.

SOMEWHERE in the wild steppes between the Caspian Sea and Lake Aral, the Turkomans or Turks once dwelt.

The first branch of this Tartar race that came pouring westward, extending their empire even up to the very Bosphorus, were the Seljuk Turks. But their power went down into ruins before the terrible Mongol, Zenghis Khan, who, in the thirteenth century, drenched Asia with the blood of millions.

There was, however, another Turkish tribe destined to play a more brilliant part in the world's history. These were the Osmanlis, or Ottomans,* who derived their name from the Emir Osman or Othman (the Bone-breaker), the founder of their empire. Othman, a handsome, black-browed man, with very long arms, ruled the Turks from 1299 to 1326. The great object of his unceasing efforts was to conquer the possessions of the Byzantine Empire in Asia Minor; and when he lay on his death-bed, the news came that the arms of his son Orchan had been crowned by the capture of the great city of Brusa. There the seat of the Ottoman Empire was for some time fixed.

The reign of Orchan (1326–1360) was marked by the establishment of the famous Janissaries (New Troops). Every year a thousand Christian children were torn from their parents, forced to become Moslems, and trained to a soldier's life by the most rigorous discipline. This was done yearly for three centuries; and thus was formed that terrible body of troops, whose fierce military ardor, and unpitying hearts, made them first the safeguard and then the terror of the sultans.

Solyman, the eldest son of Orchan, crossing the Hellespont one night with a few warriors, seized a castle on the European shore. In
1356 three days three thousand Ottomans garrisoned the stronghold.
A.D. This event marks the first firm footing gained by the Turks on European soil; and they never since have lost their hold.

Under Amurath I. (1360–1389) Adrianople, being taken by the Turks, was made for a time the centre of their European possessions. A league was formed by the Sclavonic nations along the Danube to repel the infidel invaders, but in vain. The crescent—such was the device borne on the Turkish banners—still shone victorious in Thrace and Servia.

Bajazet, a drunken sensualist, who, succeeding his father, reigned from 1389 to 1402, exchanged the title Emir for the prouder name of Sultan. At Nicopolis he routed the chivalry of Hungary and France, which had mustered to roll back the dark flood of Moslem war. Classic Greece, too, was ravaged by his victorious hordes. Steadily he seemed to be advancing in the gigantic plan of European conquest sketched out by his ambitious father, when the most terrific warrior Asia has ever borne, rising on his eastern frontier, dashed his power into fragments.

This was Timour the Lame, whose name has been corrupted into Tamerlane, a Mongol descended from Zenghis Khan. From his capital, Samarcand, he spread his conquests on every side—from the Chinese Wall to the Nile; from the springs of the Ganges to the heart of Russia. Whenever this demon conqueror took a city, he raised as a trophy of his

* The modern Turks call themselves Osmanli—not Turks, which latter name implies rudeness and barbarism.

success a pyramid of bleeding human heads. Bajazet was obliged to forego the intended siege of Constantinople by the attack of the ferocious Mongol upon the eastern frontier of his newly-acquired dominions in Asia Minor. The decisive battle was fought at Angora, where Bajazet, utterly defeated, was made prisoner. Carried about with the Mongol army in a litter with iron lattices, which gave rise to the common story of his imprisonment in an iron cage, the Turkish sultan died, eight months after, of a broken heart. His conqueror, Timour, died in 1405, while on the march to invade China. **1402** A.D.

Four Turkish sultans reigned between the wretched Bajazet and the conqueror of Constantinople.

Amurath II., last of the four, having died at Adrianople in 1451, his son Mahomet, crossing rapidly to Europe, was crowned second sultan of that name. He was a terrible compound of fine literary taste with revolting cruelty and lust. One of his very first acts after he became sultan was to cause his infant brother to be drowned, while the baby's mother was congratulating him on his accession.

The throne of the Eastern Empire was then filled by Constantine Palæologus, no unworthy wearer of the purple. Limb after limb had been lopped from the great trunk. There was still life in the heart, though it throbbed with feeble pulses ; but now came the mortal thrust.

After more than a year of busy preparation, seventy thousand Turks, commanded by Mahomet II. in person, sat down in the spring of 1453 before Constantinople. Their lines stretched across the landward or western side of the triangle on which the city was built. A double wall, and a great ditch one hundred feet deep, lay in their front ; and within this rampart the Emperor Constantine marshalled his little band of defenders. A little band indeed it was, for scarcely six thousand out of a population of more than one hundred thousand souls would arm for the defence of the city ; and western Christendom was so dull or careless that, with the exception of two thousand mercenaries under Giustiniani, a noble of Genoa, these had no foreign aid. The harbor of the Golden Horn, guarded by a strong chain across its mouth, sheltered only fourteen galleys. The Turkish fleet consisted of three hundred and twenty vessels of different sizes.

The siege began. On both sides cannon and muskets of a rude kind were used. One great gun deserves special notice. It was cast by a European brassfounder at Adrianople, and threw a stone ball of six hundred pounds to the distance of a mile. But such cannon could be fired only six or seven times a day. Lances and arrows flew thick from both lines ; and heavy stones from the balists filled up the pauses of the cannonade. **April 6.**

At first, fortune seemed to smile on the besieged. A vigorous assault of the Turks upon the walls was repulsed, and the wooden tower they had used in the attack was burned.

One day, in the middle of April, the watchmen of the besieged saw the white sails of five ships gleaming on the southward horizon. They came from Chios, carrying to the beleaguered city fresh troops, wheat, wine, and oil. The Greeks, with anxious hearts, crowded the seaward wall. A swarm of Turkish boats pushed out to meet the daring barks, and, curving in a crescent shape, awaited their approach. Mahomet, riding by the edge of the sea, with cries and gestures urged his sailors to the attack. Three times the Turks endeavored to board the enemy; but as often the flotilla reeled back in confusion, shattered with cannon-shot and scorched with Greek fire, while the waters were strewn with the floating wreck of those vessels which were crushed by collision with the heavy Christian galleys. Steadily onward came the five ships, safe into the harbor of the Golden Horn. The Turkish admiral was doomed by the furious sultan to be impaled; but the sentence was commuted to one hundred blows with a golden bar, which, we are told, Mahomet himself administered with right good will.

Then came the turning-point of the siege. The sultan, feeling that his attack by land must be seconded by sea, formed a bold plan. It was to convey a part of his fleet overland from the Propontis, and launch them in the upper end of the harbor. The distance was six miles; but by means of rollers running on a tramway of greased planks, eighty of the Turkish vessels were carried over the rugged ground in one night. A floating battery was then made, from which the Turkish cannon began to play with fearful effect on the weakest side of the city.

When the attack had lasted for seven weeks, a broad gap was to be seen in the central rampart. Many attempts at negotiation had come to nothing, for Constantine refused to give up the city, and nothing else would satisfy the sultan. At last a day was fixed for the grand

May 29, 1453 A.D. assault. At daybreak the long lines of Turks made their attack. When the strength of the Christians was almost exhausted in endless strife with the swarms of irregular troops who led the way, the terrible Janissaries advanced. The storm grew louder, the rattle of the Turkish drums mingling with the thunder of the ordnance. Just then the brave Giustiniani, defending the great breach, was wounded; and when, after this loss, the defence grew slacker, a body of Turks, following the Janissary Hassan, clambered over the ruined wall into the city. Amid the rush Constantine Palæologus, last of the Cæsars, fell dead, sabred by an unknown hand; and with him fell the Eastern Empire.

At noon on the same day Mahomet summoned the Moslems to prayer in the church of St. Sophia—thus establishing the rites of Islam where Christian worship had been held ever since the days of Constantine the Great.

It was not, however, the policy of the sultan to root the Greek worship out of the conquered city; and so, ten days after his victory, we find him installing a new patriarch, and announcing himself to be the protector of the Greek Church. And to fill the ruined and deserted streets of the long-decaying city, he transplanted thither crowds from all parts of his empire; so that once more Constantinople was alive with a busy throng.

Mahomet was only twenty-three when he overthrew the Eastern Empire. The remainder of his reign—twenty-eight years—was spent in ceaseless endeavors to extend the Turkish power. His great opponents were Scanderbeg, Prince of Albania, and Hunyades, who drove him, with broken ranks, and the loss of all his cannon, from before the walls of Belgrade, then the key of Hungary (1456). Two years earlier he had conquered the Peloponnesus.

But his great conquest, next to the capture of Constantinople, was the reduction of the Crimea in 1475, by the Grand Vizier Ahmed. The failure of an attack upon Rhodes, held by the Knights of St. John, and a successful descent upon southern Italy, which was crowned by the taking of Otranto, were the chief events of his last years. The success at Otranto was the first step to a long-cherished plan—the conquest of Italy; but his sudden death, in 1481, checked the further progress of the Moslem arms in that land.

THE LAST EMPERORS OF THE EAST.

	A.D.
Michael VIII.	1261
Andronicus II. (Palæologus the Elder)	1282
Andronicus III. (the Younger)	1332
John Palæologus	1341
Manuel Palæologus	1391
John Palæologus II.	1425
Constantine XIII. Palæologus	1448–53

THE FIRST TWELVE TURKISH SULTANS.

	A.D.
Othman	1299
Orchan	1326
Amurath I.	1360
Bajazet I.	1389
Solyman	1402

	A.D.
Musa-Celeby	1410
Mahomet I.	141?
Amurath II.	1421
Mahomet II.	1451
Bajazet II.	1481
Selim I.	1512
Solyman II., the Magnificent	1520–66

CHAPTER III.

THE EXPULSION OF THE MOORS FROM SPAIN.

Central Point: THE CAPTURE OF ALHAMA, 1482 A.D.

Emirate of Cordova—Abd-el-Rahman—Al-Hakem—The Moors—The Cid—Navas de Tolosa—Kingdom of Granada—The Alhambra—Marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella—Alhama taken—Fall of Malaga—Siege of Granada—Building of Santa Fé—Fate of Abdallah.

The Ommiyads, as already said, breaking loose from the Caliphate of Asia, established the Emirate of Cordova in 755. Their dominions soon extended as far north as the Douro and the Ebro. But among the mountains of Asturias the wreck of the Visigothic nation, shattered on the field of Xeres, still survived; and these, breathing the free mountain air, and eating the bread of hardship, became steeled into a race of heroes, whose succeeding generations never rested until the infidels, driven continually southward, were at last expelled from the peninsula.

The greatest of the Ommiyads was Abd-el-Rahman III. (912–961). Having assumed the title of Caliph, he cleared the land of rebels, defeated the Christians of Leon at Zamora on the Douro, and developed the resources of the country with surprising wisdom. Roads, canals, and aqueducts spread a net-work of industry everywhere. There were, besides eighty cities of lower rank, six capitals, glittering with gorgeous mosques and palaces. The fields smiled like lovely and fertile gardens. The seventeen universities, famous for the teaching of mathematics, astronomy, chemistry, and medicine, were thronged with students from every corner of Europe.

The peaceful reign of Al-Hakem, his successor, has been called the golden age of Arab literature in Spain (961-976). This prince delighted in the society of literary men; no present pleased him better than a good book. His chief enjoyment was in the collection of rare manuscripts, with which, to the number of six hundred thousand, he filled every nook and corner of his palace. And this, at a time when England, France, and Italy were steeped in intellectual darkness.

Quarrels for the throne of Cordova broke up the great Emirate ; and in 1031, when Hisham III., the last of the Ommiyads, died, a number of petty princes sprang up, whose feuds led to their own destruction. Pressed hard by the Castilians, they called in the aid of the Moors. Yusef came over the strait with a great army burning with fanatic zeal, overthrew Alfonso VI., and then subdued beneath his rule all the pigmy Saracen princes, whose battles he had come to fight. So, upon the ruins of the once brilliant Saracen dynasty a Moorish power was built up, whose glory, though long dimmed, still lingers in romantic twilight among the hills of southern Spain. **1086** A.D.

Rising from amid the dust of these early wars was seen the famous hero of the Spanish ballads, Roderigo Diaz de Bivar, called by the Christians Campeador (the Champion), and by the Moors, whom he so often defeated, El Seid, the Cid (lord). Like the British Arthur, the outlines of his story are so dimmed, that some have doubted his existence at all. He was born at Burgos, in the eleventh century. Driven from Castile by the usurper Alfonso, he began a guerilla warfare against the Moors of Aragon, where he fixed his castle on a crag, which is still called the Rock of the Cid. His great achievement was the conquest, after a long siege, of the Moorish city of Valencia. There he established a little state, over which he ruled until his death in 1099.

The first half of the thirteenth century was a fatal time for the Moeslms in Spain, whose power was terribly shattered in the great battle of Navas de Tolosa. We then find the great Emirate of Cordova dwindled down to one-half its former size, and pressed to the south of the peninsula by the five kingdoms of Portugal, Leon, Castile, Navarre, and Aragon. The crowns of Leon and Castile were united in 1230, in the person of Ferdinand III. (the Saint), whose arms carried defeat and dismay into the heart of Moorish Andalusia. **1212** A.D.

He took from the infidels the rich basin of the Guadalquivir, the cradle of their Spanish dominion. Cordova fell in 1236, and the Moors were then forced to concentrate their power within the mountain-land of Granada. **1236** A.D.

Here shone the last blaze of Moorish splendor in Spain. Though shrunken to a circuit of one hundred and eighty leagues, the kingdom of Granada, under the Alhamarid monarchs, remained strong and glorious for two centuries and a half, defying the chivalry of Spain, and enriched by a commerce which carried her silks and sword-blades, her dyed leather, her fabrics of wool, flax, and cotton, to the bazaars of Constantinople, Egypt, and even India. Mulberry-trees and sugar-canes clothed her fertile valleys. The fair Vega, or cultivated plain, sweeping away from the city of Granada for ten leagues, brought forth delicious fruits and heavy grain,

nourished by the waters of the Xenil, which were spread through a thousand rills by the industry of the Moorish husbandmen.

To the east rose the white peaks of the Sierra Nevada ; and, crowning one of the two hills on which the city stood, was the palace or royal fortress of the Alhambra, still, even in its ruins, the great sight of Spain.

Outwardly the Alhambra seems to be but a plain square red tower ; but within, in spite of monkish whitewash and the vandalism of Charles V., who pulled down a large part to make room for a winter palace that was never finished, it is a group of halls, courts, and colonnades of wonderful grace and beauty. Their slender columns, rivalling the taper palm-tree ; walls whose stones were cut and pierced into a trellis-work, resembling in its exquisite delicacy lace or fine ivory carving ; domes honey-combed with azure and vermilion cells, and bright with stalactites of dropping gold ; groves of orange and myrtle, clustering round the marble basins in which cool silver fountains plashed their merry music, formed a scene of fairy splendor, amid which the monarchs of Granada held their brilliant court.

Towards the end of the fifteenth century, Ferdinand, son of John II., King of Aragon, married Isabella, the daughter of John II.,
1469 King of Castile. This happy union was a great turning-point
A.D. in the history of Spain. On the death of her brother Henry, in 1474, Isabella was proclaimed Queen of Castile ; and Ferdinand received the crown of Aragon in 1479, when his father died. Thus all Spain, except the little states of Navarre and Granada, lay under the double sceptre of this illustrious pair.

At once, Ferdinand and his wife formed the design of rooting out the Moorish dominion from the peninsula. The famous War of
1481 Granada began. The surprise of the little border town, Za-
A.D. hara, by the Moors, provoked the storm. Well might an old Moorish Alfaki cry out, when he heard the news, "Woe is me ; the ruins of Zahara will fall on our own heads !"

Ere long the first stone fell. The Marquis of Cadiz, gathering 5,500 horse and foot, marched upon Alhama, a strong city embosomed
1482 among hills, about eight leagues from Granada. In the silence
A.D. of night the citadel was surprised ; but the city was not so easily taken. Barricades were flung up, cross-bow bolts and arquebuse balls swept the narrow streets, while women and children poured hot oil and pitch from the flat roofs upon the Christian soldiery. But all in vain. Moorish blood choked the kennels ; Moorish gold and jewels rewarded the exulting victors. Twice during the same year, vain attempts were made to recover this key of Granada.

Loxa on the Xenil was then invested by the Spaniards ; but they soon abandoned the siege. Meanwhile, the strength of Granada was paralyzed

by internal discord. The old king was deposed; his brother and his son, both named Abdallah, contended for the throne. Soon after the Spanish arms sustained a severe reverse. The grand master of St. Jago, on his return from a descent upon the borders of Malaga, becoming entangled among savage mountains, his troops were shot down in crowds by the Moors who lined the heights.

But this was an exception; one success after another crowned the arms of the Christians. The king, Abdallah, was made prisoner, as he was lurking among the willows by the Xenil after his defeat at Lucena. He was soon, however, released for four hundred Christian captives and twelve thousand pieces of gold.

Immense cannon, throwing huge balls of marble, gave the Spaniards a decided supremacy in this war of sieges.

Gradually, the circle of fire narrowed round Granada. After a brave resistance of three months, the starving garrison of Malaga yielded their shot-torn ramparts to Ferdinand. And the fall of Baza, two years later, prepared the way for the last great scene. **1487 A.D.**

During the spring and autumn of 1490, the Vega was ravaged, under the very shadow of Granada itself. Early in the next year, Ferdinand encamped by the Xenil with 50,000 men. The city was choked with fugitives from all the country round. Challenges often passed between the besieged and the besiegers; and the Vega was the scene of many single combats between the Spanish and Moorish cavaliers. The bright eyes of Isabella and her ladies kindled the valor of the gallant Dons; and surely the dark-skinned warriors fought none the less bravely, for remembering the soft Moorish eyes that watched their deeds from the lattices of Granada. But Isabella took, besides, a more active share in the siege, for, like our own Elizabeth at Tilbury, she rode about in full armor, inspecting, reviewing, and encouraging her troops. **April, 1491 A.D.**

Constant skirmishes took place. One day, the garrison made a grand sally at early dawn. They were met by the Marquis of Cadiz. The Moorish horse fought bravely; but the foot giving way, all were driven into the city with the loss of their cannon.

Force of arms, however, did less for Ferdinand than the building of Santa Fé. In three months this town arose where his tents had been Solid stone took the place of fluttering canvas; and the hearts of the Moors died within them, when they saw the masonry which typified the stern resolve of the Christian king to win Granada. Famine too, began to be felt. Unknown to the people, Abdallah and his advisers entered into negotiations **Jan. 2, 1492 A.D.**

with the Spaniards. On a fixed day, the Moorish king gave up the keys of the Alhambra; and the great cross of silver, which had been throughout the war the leading ensign of the Christian host, was borne into the Moorish capital amid the pealing notes of the Te Deum.

A few hours, and Abdallah reined his horse on a rocky hill, which is still called "The Last Sigh of the Moor," to take a farewell look of Granada. His eyes were brimming with tears. "Well doth it become thee," said his mother, "to weep like a woman for what thou couldst not defend as a man." The treaty of surrender had left him still a shadow of royalty—the lordship of a mountain territory, for which he was to do homage to the Castilian sovereigns. After holding it for a year, he sold it to Ferdinand, and, crossing to Africa, died in battle there.

So, with the fall of Granada ended the Moslem power in Spain, after an existence of nearly eight centuries. The loss of Constantinople to Christendom was well atoned for by the day when—

"Down from the Alhambra's minarets
Were all the crescents flung."

KINGS OF CASTILE DURING THE FOURTEENTH AND FIFTEENTH CENTURIES.

	A.D.
Ferdinand IV.	——
Alfonso XI.	1312
Peter the Cruel.	1350
Henry II.	1368
John I.	1379
Henry III.	1390
John II.	1406
Henry IV.	1454
Ferdinand V., the Catholic	1474

CHAPTER IV.

THE DISCOVERY AND CONQUEST OF AMERICA.

Central Point: COLUMBUS LANDS ON ST. SALVADOR, Oct. 12, 1492 A.D.

Early days of Columbus—At Lisbon—His grand idea—His struggles—Success at last—The voyage out—A light ahead—Lands on St. Salvador—Reception at Barcelona—His last days—Ferdinand Cortez—Occupies Mexico—Seizure of Montezuma—Battle of Otumba—Francisco Pizarro—The Massacre of the Peruvians—Death of the Inca—Pizarro slain.

The autumn of the year whose dawn witnessed the fall of Granada, was distinguished by the discovery of America, and the planting there of the Spanish flag.

Christopher Columbus (the Latin form of the Italian Colombo—in Spanish, Colon) was born at Genoa about 1435, the son of a wool-comber. A few months' study at Pavia deepened his natural love for mathematics. He was especially fond of geography, astronomy, and navigation. At fourteen he went to sea.

After many voyages and adventures he settled, about 1470, at Lisbon, which was then the great centre of maritime enterprise. The fiery boy, ever ready for a fight, had then sobered down into a man of thirty-five, gentle, temperate, with a long, fair, freckled face, sharp, light-gray eyes, and flowing hair prematurely white. There he married an Italian lady, Felipa. His chief occupation, when not at sea, was the construction of maps—a pursuit which brought him into contact with the leading scientific men of the day.

There, as he pored over his maps, a grand idea began to take definite shape within his brain. He believed that it was possible to reach Asia by sailing westward across the Atlantic. His thoughts upon the globular shape of the earth, the opinions expressed by old writers on geography, and, stronger still, the facts that pieces of carved wood, huge reeds, and pine-trees—even two drowned men of unknown race—drifted towards Europe by westerly winds, had been picked up in the Atlantic, or washed ashore at the Azores, deepened this conviction; and his soul kindled within him, as he felt that he was the man chosen by heaven to carry the light of the Cross into a new world beyond the western waves.

His plans were first submitted to John II. of Portugal, who was mean enough, while haggling about terms, to send a vessel out on the proposed route. A few days' sailing, however, cowed the would-be robbers, who put back without having seen anything but a waste of stormy waters. His offers to the government of his native Genoa were rejected too. In 1485, we find him in the south of Spain. The time was not in his favor, for the land was ringing with the din of the Moorish war. Obtaining an audience through Cardinal Mendoza, he pleaded eloquently for aid. But he was put off, his plans being referred to pedantic monks, who either could or would make no decision. In truth, for many of these years his bitter portion was that hope deferred which maketh the heart sick.

At last the banner of Spain floated on the Alhambra. The war was over. Once more Columbus laid his plans before the court. Filled with the grandeur of his scheme, he demanded that he should be admiral and viceroy of all the lands he discovered, and that he should receive one-tenth of all the gains. As an offset to these demands, he offered to bear an eighth of the expense. Unfortunately, the Castilian treasury was empty; and Ferdinand, grudging the two ships and three thousand crowns needful for the voyage, had already rejected the proposals of Columbus, when Isabella—

to her lasting honor—declared that she would pawn her jewels for the cost of the expedition. Columbus, who had left Santa Fe, was recalled, and an arrangement was completed.

On a Friday morning, three ships—two of them being caravels, or light undecked boats, called the *Pinta* and the *Nina*, the third a larger vessel, the *Santa Maria*, which bore the flag of Columbus—left the harbor of Palos in Andalusia. One hundred and twenty men were on board. As the last farewells were said, and the heavy tears fell fast, hope died out in every breast but one. True as the needle to the pole, the brave heart of the admiral pointed to its grand purpose. Touching at the Canaries, they sailed westward for forty days, when it was noticed that the needle was not pointing to the north star. The pilots were in alarm, until Columbus explained away their fear. Seaweed drifting past, and birds wheeling round seemed to betoken that land was near. But as day after day rose and set on the heaving circle of water, unbroken by one speck of shore, the murmurs of the crews grew deep.

Aug. 3, 1492 A.D.

Clouds on the horizon deceived them more than once. On the evening of the 10th of October, the clamor broke wildly out. Go home they would. But still the iron will of Columbus beat down these feebler souls, and the prows still pointed to the west. Sternly he told them that, happen what might, he was resolved to go on, and, with God's blessing, to succeed. Next day their hopes revived, for they saw green rock-fish playing in the sea, river weeds, and a branch with fresh berries floating by, and they picked up a reed, a board, and a carved stick.

That evening, at ten o'clock, Columbus, standing on the raised poop of his ship, thought he saw a light on the dark horizon. He called two of his associates. One saw it—the other caught some gleams as it rose and fell in the dim night. Four hours later, at two o'clock, a shot from the *Pinta* announced that land was ahead. And when that famous Friday morning dawned, there it lay, six miles off, the dream of many struggling years realized at last—a low, green shore fringed with many trees.

Oct. 12, 1492 A.D.

Columbus, dressed in rich scarlet, landed with the royal banner of Spain in his hand. Kissing the welcome soil with tears of joy, he returned thanks to God ; and then with drawn sword took possession of the island, which he named San Salvador. It was one of the Bahama group. The simple natives, who had at first fled in fear to the woods, soon returning, timidly made friends with the Spaniards, touching their beards, and wondering at their white faces.

Cruising among these islands, which have ever since been called the West Indies, from the mistaken idea of Columbus that they formed a part

of Asia,* the Spaniards discovered Cuba and Hispaniola. Columbus reached Palos just seven months and twelve days from the sailing of the expedition. His reception at Barcelona was a brilliant triumph. The king and queen, rising to receive him, bestowed on him the rare honor of a seat in their presence. He told his story; showed the birds, the plants, the gold ore, and the natives he had brought from the New World; and when he ceased to speak, the sovereigns fell on their knees, while a hymn of thanksgiving rose from the assembled choir.

March 15, 1493 A.D.

Columbus made three more voyages of discovery. In 1500, upon a false charge of oppressing the colonists of Hispaniola, he was superseded by Bobadilla, who sent him in fetters to Spain. These irons he kept ever after, hanging up in his private room, to remind him of the ingratitude of princes; and he ordered them to be buried in his grave. Returning from his last voyage, in 1504, this greatest of the world's sailors laid down his weary head to die at Valladolid, May 20th, 1506.

In 1518 the Spanish governor of Cuba sent an officer, Ferdinand Cortez, with ten ships and six hundred men, to conquer the newly discovered Mexico. Having founded the colony of Vera Cruz as a basis of operations, Cortez then broke all his ships to pieces. This he did to insure success, for he thus shut himself and his soldiers up in the invaded land.

Montezuma was the emperor of the Mexicans. Gradually advancing through his territories, the Spanish force at last reached the capital. Everywhere they were regarded as deities—children of the sun. Scrolls of cotton cloth were carried far and wide through the terror-stricken land, on which were pictured pale-faced, bearded warriors, trampling horses, ships with spreading wings, and cannons breathing out lightning, and dashing to the earth tall trees far away. The emperor admitted Cortez to his capital, but at the same time sent a secret expedition to attack Vera Cruz. The hopes of the Mexicans revived when they saw the head of a Spaniard carried through the land; for then they knew that their foes were mortal. At this crisis Cortez resolved on a bold stroke. Seizing Montezuma, he carried him to the Spanish quarters, and forced him to acknowledge himself a vassal of Spain.

Having held Mexico for six months, Cortez left it to defeat Narvaez, whom the Cuban government, jealous of his success, had sent against him with nearly a thousand men.

During his absence all was uproar in the capital. Two thousand Mexican nobles had been massacred for the sake of their golden ornaments; and the Spanish quarters were surrounded by a furious crowd. The return of Cortez, with a force increased by the troops of the defeated Narvaez,

* The aborigines of America are still called Indians from the same error.

was oil cast on flame. Montezuma, striving to mediate, was killed by a stone flung by one of his angry subjects. The Spaniards were for a time driven from the city; but in the valley of Otumba (1520) the Mexicans were routed, and their golden standard was taken. Soon afterward the new emperor was made prisoner, stretched on burning coals, and gibbeted. The siege of Mexico, lasting seventy-five days, was the final blow.

1521 A.D.

The cruelty of Cortez is undoubted; but it is possible to find in the story of our own empire, cases which can rival in atrocity the bloodiest deeds of the Spanish adventurer. He, too, like Columbus, was looked coldly on at home. He died in 1547 at Seville, aged sixty-two.

The conqueror of Peru was Francisco Pizarro, a man who could neither read nor write, and whose early days were spent in herding swine. Running away from home in early life, he became a soldier, and saw much service in the New World. Between 1524 and 1528, while exploring the coast of Peru, he formed the design of conquering that golden land, being tempted by the abundance of the precious metals, which glittered everywhere, forming not merely the ornaments of the people, but the commonest utensils of everyday life.

He sailed from Panama with one hundred and eighty-six men, in February, 1531. A civil war then raging in Peru between two brothers, who were rivals for the throne, made his task an easier one than it might otherwise have been. The strife seems to have been to some extent decided when the Spaniards landed, for Atahualpa was then Inca of Peru—so they called their kings.

Pizarro found the Inca holding a splendid court near the city of Caxamarca; and the eyes of the Spanish pirates gleamed when they saw the glitter of gold and jewels in the royal camp. The visit of the Spanish leader was returned by the Inca, who came in a golden chair, encompassed by ten thousand guards. A friar, crucifix in hand, strove to convert this worshipper of the sun, telling him at the same time that the pope had given Peru to the King of Spain. The argument was all lost on the Inca, who could not see how the pope was able to give away what was not his, and who, besides, scorned the idea of giving up the worship of so magnificent a god as the sun. The furious priest turned with a cry for vengeance to the Spaniards. They were ready, for it was all a tragedy well rehearsed beforehand. The match was laid to the levelled cannon, and a storm of shot from great guns and small burst upon the poor huddled crowd of Peruvians, amid whose slaughter and dismay Pizarro carried off the Inca. As the price of freedom, Atahualpa offered to fill his cell with gold. The offer was accepted, and the treasure divided among the Spaniards; but the unhappy Inca

1533 A.D.

was strangled after all. The capture of Cuzco completed the wonderfully easy conquest of Peru.

Pizarro founded Lima in 1535; and, six years later, was slain by conspirators, who burst into his palace during the mid-day siesta.

KINGS OF ARAGON DURING THE FOURTEENTH AND FIFTEENTH CENTURIES.

	A.D.
James II.	——
Alfonso IV.	1327
Peter IV.	1336
John I	1387
Martin I.	1396
Interregnum	1410
Ferdinand the Just	1412
Alfonso V.	1416
John II., King of Navarre	1458
Ferdinand V., the Catholic	1479

CHAPTER V.

SETTLEMENT OF AMERICA, 1620.

Embarking in England—Landing in America—Progress—Cause of war with the Indians.

America, soon after its discovery, drew the attention of all the nations of western Europe toward it. Adventurers from England and France, as well as from Spain and Portugal, flocked to the New World; most of whom were attracted by the hope of repairing their ruined fortunes. France took possession of the northern portions, afterwards called Canada, and made settlements; England attempted colonies farther south, in Virginia.

In August, 1620, one hundred and two persons, men, women, and children, set sail, in a small vessel, from Plymouth, England, for the New World. These persons were not in search of gold. They sought an *asylum* where they might exercise the rights of conscience without fear of molestation.

The one hundred and two consisted of forty-one male adults and sixty-one women and children. Before landing they entered into a written compact to obey all laws that should *afterwards be made by them.* This little band may be regarded as the foundation of the United States; a nation destined to play a most wonderful part in the world's history; establishing political and religious liberty; advancing civilization, and

affording an *asylum* for the surplus population of the overcrowded countries of the Old World.

Under the most discouraging circumstances, harassed by famine, pinched with the frosts of a New England winter, and surrounded by savages, this little band struggled on. Sickness and exposure greatly reduced their numbers. Yet before their steady perseverance the forest disappeared ; towns and villages sprang up, and the virgin soil yielded to cultivation an abundant harvest.

Liberty of conscience and political freedom attracted settlers. Colony succeeded colony until thirteen distinct establishments had been planted, under the name of Colonies of Great Britain in North America.

Although the English planted a colony at Jamestown, in Virginia, in 1607, thirteen years before ; the settlement of the Plymouth colony was really the foundation of the present nation, known as the United States of North America.

As has already been stated, colony after colony was founded along the Atlantic coast from Massachusetts to Georgia ; the early settlers suffering great privations and enduring the hardships incident to the settlement of a wilderness. But so determined were these people to make a home for themselves and their posterity, that their industry and perseverance overcame all obstacles, and in little more than a century the forests were supplanted by cultivated fields. Hamlets, towns, and cities sprang up, and more than three millions of people were found within the borders of the thirteen colonies.

For many years the aboriginal inhabitants were friendly to the whites. The natives entered into a compact and treaty of peace and amity with the white settlers.

Massasoit was then chief of the Wampanoags. While he lived no hostilities occurred. After his death, his son Philip became chief. He did not regard the compact made by his father binding upon him ; becoming alarmed at the encroachments of the whites, he commenced stirring up the New England tribes to make a united attack upon their common enemy.

In 1675 a friendly Indian was murdered : three natives were arrested by the whites, tried, condemned, and executed for the murder. This precipitated hostilities, and the first Indian war commenced in 1675, called Philip's War, Philip being the active chief.

Edward Everett has described the cause of the outbreak in the following address, delivered at Bloody Brook, South Deerfield, Massachusetts, in commemoration of the battle which occurred there during Philip's War.

(EXTRACT FROM AN ADDRESS BY EDWARD EVERETT.)

The Indian Outbreak of Hostilities.

"THINK of the country for which the Indians fought! Who can blame them? As Philip looked down from his seat on Mount Hope, that glorious eminence; as he looked down and beheld the lovely scene which spread beneath at a summer sunset—the distant hill-tops blazing with gold, the slanting beams streaming along the waters, the broad plains, the island groups, the majestic forest—could he be blamed if his heart burned within him as he beheld it all passing, by no tardy process, from beneath his control, into the hands of the stranger?

"Can we not fancy the feelings with which some strong-minded savage, in company with a friendly settler, contemplating the progress already made by the white man, and marking the gigantic strides with which he was advancing into the wilderness, should fold his arms and say, 'White man, there is eternal war between me and thee! I quit not the land of my fathers but with my life! In those woods, where I bent my youthful bow, I will still hunt the deer; over yonder waters I will still glide unrestrained in my bark canoe; by those dashing waterfalls I will still lay up my winter's store of food; on these fertile meadows I will still plant my corn.

"'Stranger, the land is mine! I understand not these paper rights. I gave not my consent, when, as thou sayest, these broad regions were purchased, for a few baubles, of my fathers. They could sell what was theirs; they could sell no more. How could my father sell that which the Great Spirit sent me into the world to live upon? They knew not what they did. The stranger came—a timid suppliant, few and feeble—and asked to lie down on the red man's bear-skin, and warm himself at the red man's fire, and have a little piece of land to raise corn for his women and children; and now he is become strong, and mighty, and bold, and spreads out his parchment over the whole, and says, "It is mine!"

"'Stranger, there is not room for us both. The Great Spirit has not made us to live together. There is poison in the white man's cup; the white man's dog barks at the red man's heels. If I should leave the land of my fathers, whither shall I fly? Shall I go to the south, and dwell among the graves of the Pequods? Shall I go to the west?—the fierce Mohawk, the man-eater, is my foe. Shall I fly to the east?—the great water is before me. No, stranger! here I have lived, and here will I die; and if here thou abidest, there is eternal war between me and thee. Thou hast taught me thy arts of destruction; for that alone I thank thee. And now take heed to thy steps! The red man is thy foe!

" ' When thou goest forth by day, my bullet shall whistle by thee ; when thou liest down at night, my knife is at thy throat. The noonday sun shall not discover thy enemy, and the darkness of midnight shall not protect thy rest. Thou shalt plant in terror, and I will reap in blood ; thou shalt sow the earth with corn, and I will strew it with ashes ; thou shalt go forth with the sickle, and I will follow after with the scalping-knife ; thou shalt build, and I will burn, till the white man or the Indian shall cease from the land. Go thy way, for this time, in safety ; but remember, stranger, there is eternal war between me and thee ! ' "

WASHINGTON IRVING

describes the occurrences of Philip's war, in the following article :

" The nature of the contest that ensued was such as too often distinguishes the warfare between civilized men and savages. On the part of the whites, it was conducted with superior skill and success ; but with a wastefulness of the blood and a disregard of the natural rights of their antagonists ; on the part of the Indians, it was waged with the desperation of men fearless of death, and who had nothing to expect from peace, but humiliation, dependence, and decay.

" The project of a wide and simultaneous revolt, if such had really been formed, was worthy of a capacious mind, and, had it not been prematurely discovered, might have been overwhelming in its consequences. The war that actually broke out, was but a war of detail, a mere succession of casual exploits and unconnected enterprises. Still, it sets forth the military genius and daring prowess of Philip ; and wherever, in the prejudiced and passionate narrations that have been given of it, we can arrive at simple facts, we find him displaying a vigorous mind, a fertility of expedients, a contempt of suffering and hardship, and an unconquerable resolution, that command our sympathy and applause.

" Driven from his paternal domains at Mount Hope, he threw himself into the depths of those vast and trackless forests that skirted the settlements, and were almost impervious to anything but a wild beast or an Indian. Here he gathered together his forces, like the storm accumulating its stores of mischief in the bosom of the thunder-cloud, and would suddenly emerge at a time and place least expected, carrying havoc and dismay into the villages.

" There were, now and then, indications of these impending ravages, that filled the minds of the colonists with awe and apprehension. The report of a distant gun would perhaps be heard from the solitary woodland, where there was known to be no white man ; the cattle which had been wandering in the woods would sometimes return home wounded ; or an

Indian or two would be seen lurking about the skirts of the forests, and suddenly disappearing; as the lightning will sometimes be seen playing silently about the edge of the cloud that is brewing up the tempest.

"Though sometimes pursued, and even surrounded, by the settlers, yet Philip as often escaped, almost miraculously, from their toils, and, plunging into the wilderness, would be lost to all search or inquiry, until he again emerged at some far-distant quarter, laying the country desolate. Among his strongholds were the great swamps or morasses which extend in some parts of New England, composed of loose bogs of deep black mud, perplexed with thickets, brambles, rank weeds, the shattered and moldering trunks of fallen trees, overshadowed by lugubrious hemlocks. The uncertain footing and the tangled mazes of these shaggy wilds rendered them almost impracticable to the white man, though the Indian could thrid their labyrinths with the agility of a deer.

"Into one of these, the great swamp of Pocasset Neck, was Philip once driven with a band of his followers. The English did not dare to pursue him, fearing to venture into these dark and frightful recesses, where they might perish in fens and miry pits, or be shot down by lurking foes. They therefore invested the entrance to the Neck, and began to build a fort, with the thought of starving out the foe; but Philip and his warriors wafted themselves on a raft over an arm of the sea, in the dead of night, leaving the women and children behind, and escaped away to the westward, kindling the flames of war among the tribes of Massachusetts and the Nipmuck country, and threatening the colony of Connecticut.

"In this way, Philip became a theme of universal apprehension. The mystery in which he was enveloped exaggerated his real terrors. He was an evil that walked in darkness; whose coming none could foresee, and against which none knew when to be on the alert. The whole country abounded with rumors and alarms. Philip seemed almost possessed of ubiquity; for, in whatever part of the widely-extended frontier an irruption from the forest took place, Philip was said to be its leader.

"Many superstitious notions also were circulated concerning him. He was said to deal in necromancy, and to be attended by an old Indian witch or prophetess, whom he consulted, and who assisted him by her charms and incantations. This, indeed, was frequently the case with Indian chiefs; either through their own credulity, or to act upon that of their followers; and the influence of the prophet and the dreamer over Indian superstition has been fully evidenced in recent instances of savage warfare.

"At the time that Philip effected his escape from Pocasset, his fortunes were in a desperate condition. His forces had been thinned by repeated fights, and he had lost almost the whole of his resources. In this time of

adversity he found a faithful friend in Canonchet, chief sachem of all the Narragansets. He was the son and heir of Miantonimo, the great sachem, who, after an honorable acquittal of the charge of conspiracy, had been privately put to death at the perfidious instigations of the settlers. 'He was the heir,' says the old chronicler, 'of all his father's pride and insolence, as well as of his malice toward the English;'—he certainly was the heir of his insults and injuries, and the legitimate avenger of his murder.

"Though he had forborne to take an active part in this hopeless war, yet he received Philip and his broken forces with open arms; and gave them the most generous countenance and support. This at once drew upon him the hostility of the English; and it was determined to strike a signal blow that should involve both the sachems in one common ruin. A great force was, therefore, gathered together from Massachusetts, Plymouth, and Connecticut, and was sent into the Narraganset country in the depth of winter, when the swamps, being frozen and leafless, could be traversed with comparative facility, and would no longer afford dark and impenetrable fastnesses to the Indians.

"Apprehensive of attack, Canonchet had conveyed the greater part of his stores, together with the old, the infirm, the women and children of his tribe, to a strong fortress; where he and Philip had likewise drawn up the flower of their forces. This fortress, deemed by the Indians impregnable, was situated upon a rising mound or kind of island, of five or six acres, in the midst of a swamp; it was constructed with a degree of judgment and skill vastly superior to what is usually displayed in Indian fortification, and indicative of the martial genius of these two chieftains.

"Guided by a renegade Indian, the English penetrated, through December snows, to this stronghold, and came upon the garrison by surprise. The fight was fierce and tumultuous. The assailants were repulsed in their first attack, and several of their bravest officers were shot down in the act of storming the fortress, sword in hand. The assault was renewed with greater success. A lodgment was effected. The Indians were driven from one post to another. They disputed their ground inch by inch, fighting with the fury of despair. Most of their veterans were cut to pieces; and after a long and bloody battle, Philip and Canonchet, with a handful of surviving warriors, retreated from the fort, and took refuge in the thickets of the surrounding forest.

"The victors set fire to the wigwams and the fort; the whole was soon in a blaze; many of the old men, the women, and the children perished in the flames. This last outrage overcame even the stoicism of the savage. The neighboring woods resounded with the yells of rage and despair uttered by the fugitive warriors, as they beheld the destruction of their dwellings, and heard the agonizing cries of their wives and offspring.

The burning of the wigwams,' says a contemporary writer, 'the shrieks and cries of the women and children, and the yelling of the warriors, exhibited a most horrible and affecting scene, so that it greatly moved some of the soldiers.' The same writer cautiously adds, 'they were in *much doubt* then, and afterward seriously inquired, whether burning their enemies alive could be consistent with humanity, and the benevolent principles of the Gospel.'

"The fate of the brave and generous Canonchet is worthy of particular mention; the last scene of his life is one of the noblest instances on record of Indian magnanimity. Broken down in his power and resources by this signal defeat, yet faithful to his ally, and to the hapless cause which he had espoused, he rejected all overtures of peace offered on condition of betraying Philip and his followers, and declared that 'he would fight it out to the last man, rather than become a servant to the English.' His home being destroyed, his country harassed and laid waste by the incursions of the conquerors, he was obliged to wander away to the banks of the Connecticut; where he formed a rallying-point to the whole body of western Indians, and laid waste several of the English settlements.

"Early in the spring he departed on a hazardous expedition, with only thirty chosen men, to penetrate to Seaconck, in the vicinity of Mount Hope, and to procure seed-corn to plant for the sustenance of his troops. This little band of adventurers had passed safely through the Pequod country, and were in the centre of the Narraganset, resting at some wigwams near Pawtucket River, when an alarm was given of an approaching enemy. Having but seven men by him at the time, Canonchet dispatched two of them to the top of a neighboring hill to bring intelligence of the foe.

"Panic-struck by the appearance of a troop of English and Indians rapidly advancing, they fled in breathless terror past their chieftain, without stopping to inform him of the danger. Canonchet sent another scout, who did the same. He then sent two more, one of whom, hurrying back in confusion and affright, told him that the whole British army was at hand. Canonchet saw there was no choice but immediate flight. He attempted to escape round the hill, but was perceived and hotly pursued by the hostile Indians and a few of the fleetest of the English. Finding the swiftest pursuer close upon his heels, he threw off, first his blanket, then his silver-laced coat and belt of peag, by which his enemies knew him to be Canonchet, and redoubled the eagerness of pursuit.

"At length, in dashing through the river, his foot slipped upon a stone, and he fell so deep as to wet his gun. This accident so struck him with despair, that, as he afterward confessed, 'his heart and his bowels burned within him, and he became like a rotten stick, void of strength.' To

such a degree was he unnerved, that, being seized by a Pequod Indian within a short distance of the river, he made no resistance, though a man of great vigor of body and boldness of heart.

"But, on being made prisoner, the whole pride of his spirit arose within him; and from that moment we find, in the anecdotes given by his enemies, nothing but repeated flashes of elevated and prince-like heroism. Being questioned by one of the English who first came up with him, and who had not attained his twenty-second year, the proud-hearted warrior, looking with lofty contempt upon his youthful countenance, replied, 'You are a child—you cannot understand matters of war—let your brother or your chief come—him will I answer.'

"Though repeated offers were made to him of his life, on condition of submitting with his nation to the English, yet he rejected them with disdain, and refused to send any propósals of the kind to the great body of his subjects, saying that he knew none of them would comply. Being reproached with his breach of faith toward the whites, his boast that he would not deliver up a Wampanoag, nor the paring of a Wampanoag's nail, and his threat that he would burn the English alive in their houses; he disdained to justify himself, haughtily answering that others were as forward for the war as himself, and 'he desired to hear no more thereof.'

"So noble and unshaken a spirit, so true a fidelity to his cause and his friend, might have touched the feelings of the generous and the brave; but Canonchet was an Indian,—a being toward whom war had no courtesy, humanity no law, religion no compassion; he was condemned to die. The last words of his that are recorded are worthy of the greatness of his soul. When sentence of death was passed upon him, he observed 'that he liked it well, for he should die before his heart was soft, or he had spoken anything unworthy of himself.' His enemies gave him the death of a soldier, for he was shot at Stoningham by three young sachems of his own rank.

"The defeat at the Narraganset fortress and the death of Canonchet, were fatal blows to the fortunes of King Philip. He made an ineffectual attempt to raise a head of war by stirring up the Mohawks to take arms; but though possessed of the native talents of a statesman, his arts were counteracted by the superior arts of his enlightened enemies, and the terror of their warlike skill began to subdue the resolution of the neighboring tribes. The unfortunate chieftain saw himself daily stripped of power, and the ranks rapidly thinning around him.

"Some were suborned by the whites; others fell victims to hunger and fatigue, and to the frequent attacks by which they were harassed. His stores were all captured; his chosen friends were swept away from before his eyes; his uncle was shot down by his side; his sister was carried into

captivity; and in one of his narrow escapes he was compelled to leave his beloved wife and only son to the mercy of the enemy. 'His ruin,' says the historian, 'being thus gradually carried on, his misery was not prevented, but augmented thereby; being himself made acquainted with the sense and experimental feeling of the captivity of his children, loss of friends, slaughter of his subjects, bereavement of all family relations, and being stripped of all outward comforts, before his own life should be taken away.'

"To fill up the measure of his misfortunes, his own followers began to plot against his life, that by sacrificing him they might purchase dishonorable safety. Through treachery, a number of his faithful adherents, the subjects of Wetamoe, an Indian princess of Pocasset, a near kinswoman and confederate of Philip, were betrayed into the hands of the enemy. Wetamoe was among them at the time, and attempted to make her escape by crossing a neighboring river; either exhausted by swimming, or starved with cold and hunger, she was found dead and naked near the waterside.

"But persecution ceased not at the grave. Even death, the refuge of the wretched, where the wicked commonly cease from troubling, was no protection to this outcast female, whose great crime was affectionate fidelity to her kinsman and her friend. Her corpse was the object of unmanly and dastardly vengeance; the head was severed from the body and set upon a pole, and was thus exposed, at Taunton, to the view of her captive subjects. They immediately recognized the features of their unfortunate queen, and were so affected at this barbarous spectacle, that we are told they broke forth into the 'most horrid and diabolical lamentations.'

"However Philip had borne up against the complicated miseries and misfortunes that surrounded him, the treachery of his followers seemed to worry his heart and reduce him to despondency. It is said that 'he never rejoiced afterward, nor had success in any of his designs.' The spring of hope was broken—the ardor of enterprise was extinguished—he looked around, and all was danger and darkness; there was no eye to pity, nor any arm that could bring deliverance. With a scanty band of followers, who still remained true to his desperate fortunes, the unhappy Philip wandered back to Mount Hope, the ancient dwelling of his fathers.

"Here he lurked about, like a spectre, among scenes of former power and prosperity, now bereft of home, of family, and friend. There needs no better picture of his destitute and piteous situation, than that furnished by the homely pen of the chronicler, who is unwarily enlisting the feelings of the reader in favor of the hapless warrior whom he reviles. 'Philip,' he says, 'like a savage wild beast, having been hunted by the English forces through the woods, above a hundred miles backward and forward,

at last was driven to his own den upon Mount Hope, where he retired, with a few of his best friends, into a swamp, which proved but a prison to keep him fast till the messengers of death came by divine permission to execute vengeance upon him.'

"Even in this last refuge of desperation and despair, a sullen grandeur gathers round his memory. We picture him to ourselves seated among his care-worn followers, brooding in silence over his blasted fortunes, and acquiring a savage sublimity from the wildness and dreariness of his lurking-place. Defeated, but not dismayed—crushed to the earth, but not humiliated—he seemed to grow more haughty beneath disaster, and to experience a fierce satisfaction in draining the last dregs of bitterness.

"Little minds are tamed and subdued by misfortune, but great minds rise above it. The very idea of submission awakened the fury of Philip, and he smote to death one of his followers, who proposed an expedient of peace. The brother of the victim made his escape, and in revenge betrayed the retreat of his chieftain. A body of white men and Indians were immediately despatched to the swamp where Philip lay crouched, glaring with fury and despair. Before he was aware of their approach, they had begun to surround him. In a little while he saw five of his trustiest followers laid dead at his feet; all resistance was vain; he rushed forth from his covert, and made a headlong attempt to escape, but was shot through the heart by a renegade Indian of his own nation.

"Such is the scanty story of the brave but unfortunate King Philip; persecuted while living, slandered and dishonored when dead. If, however, we consider even the prejudiced anecdotes furnished us by his enemies, we may perceive in them traces of amiable and lofty character sufficient to awaken sympathy for his fate, and respect for his memory. We find that, amidst all the harassing cares and ferocious passions of constant warfare, he was alive to the softer feelings of connubial love and paternal tenderness, and to the generous sentiment of friendship. The captivity of his 'beloved wife and only son' is mentioned with exultation as causing him poignant misery; the death of any near friend is triumphantly recorded as a new blow on his sensibilities; but the treachery and desertion of many of his followers, in whose affections he had confided, is said to have desolated his heart, and to have bereaved him of all further comfort.

"He was a patriot attached to his native soil—a prince true to his subjects, and indignant of their wrongs—a soldier daring in battle, firm in adversity, patient of fatigue, of hunger, of every variety of bodily suffering, and ready to perish in the cause he had espoused. Proud of heart, and with an untamable love of natural liberty, he preferred to enjoy it among the beasts of the forests, or in the dismal and famished recesses of

swamps and morasses, rather than bow his haughty spirit to submission, and live dependent and despised in the ease and luxury of the settlements. With heroic qualities and bold achievements that would have graced a civilized warrior, and have rendered him the theme of the poet and the historian, he lived a wanderer and a fugitive in his native land, and went down—like a lonely bark foundering amid darkness and tempest—without a pitying eye to weep his fall, or a friendly hand to record his struggle."

French and Indian War, and the causes which led to the Revolution.

After the death of Philip, the colonists dwelt in comparative peace and safety from Indian *attacks*, until the declaration of war between England and France occurred, in 1752, on account of the encroachments of the French upon the territory claimed by the English in North America. The French induced the Indians to join them, and the colonists on the frontier were again exposed to the horrors of savage warfare. After a war of eight years, the French surrendered, and Canada became a part of the British possessions in North America.

This was known as the French and Indian war. When the war closed, England found her national debt greatly increased, and her statesmen conceived the project of levying a tax upon the colonists, to ease the burden of the home government.

The colonists contended that if they were taxed, they should be allowed to send members to Parliament, resisting taxation without representation. The British Parliament, looking upon the colonists as helpless dependents, at once refused to admit members from the colonies, and asserted an unconditional right to tax any subject of the British crown. Many members of Parliament took the side of the colonists, and the question gave rise to much spirited and eloquent debate.

The contest continued. The colonists petitioned, and the home government treated their petitions with contempt. In 1765, a congress of delegates from the several colonies met in New York, and, after deliberating, humbly petitioned Parliament, hoping to get redress, but failed. In 1774, the Continental Congress met at Philadelphia, and adopted a bill of rights. Parliament persisted in legislating without regard to the rights of the colonies, and passed the following acts of oppression and irritation which resulted in war, called the American Revolution.

Finding direct taxation so unpopular, and opposed with so much bold decision by the colonists, the British Parliament decided to impose instead, a system of imposts and stamp duties. In 1765, on the 22d day of March, a stamp act was passed. The Commons gave a vote for the act, 250 ayes to 50 nays, while the House of Lords was unanimous. This law made all

deeds, mortgages, articles of agreement, and receipts, of no legal value unless written upon stamped paper.

To try cases for violating the stamp act, the courts proceeded without jury. This was regarded as an infringement upon personal rights.

To enforce this and other acts, and to awe the people into submission, troops were sent out from England and quartered on the colonists.

Import duties were laid on tea, glass, paper, and painters' colors.

An act had also been passed, making it necessary to ship all goods to and from America in British ships.

A vessel laden with tea, laying at anchor in Boston harbor, was boarded by men disguised as Indians, who broke open the chests and threw the tea overboard. To punish the Bostonians for this act Parliament closed the port.

An act was passed in 1775, forbidding Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island, to trade with any nation except the mother country, and prohibiting them from fishing on the Newfoundland banks.

These acts so annoyed and exasperated the colonists, that they became insubordinate and rebellious. The king and Parliament became indignant and determined to force submission ; more troops were sent over and quartered on the people ; matters grew worse and worse until the colonists began to collect stores and munitions, preparatory to the struggle which seemed imminent. The British commander of the troops stationed at Boston, learning that stores were collecting at Lexington, sent a detachment to seize and destroy them, April 19, 1775.

The stores were destroyed by the British troops ; but the Minute men who had assembled to protect the stores, hung on the rear of the retreating force, annoying and harassing them so severely that they found great difficulty in making good their retreat.

CHAPTER VI.

LIFE IN ITALY AND SPAIN DURING THE CLOSE OF THE MIDDLE AGES.

Rise of cathedrals—Houses of Florence—Condottieri—Monks and monasteries—Pilgrimages—Life in Venice—The Guilds of Florence—Italian amusements—Literature and art—Chivalry in Spain—Three military orders—The Inquisition—Auto da Fé—Learned Ladies—Royal dress—Popular sports—The drama.

DURING the last years of the tenth century a great horror fell on all Christendom. It was everywhere believed that the last day of the year 999 would close the book of human history. And so everything was neglected. But when the mornings of 1000 A.D. grew brighter as the year rolled on, hope revived. Men felt that they had a new lease of life;

and one striking form their gratitude took, was the rearing of those magnificent cathedrals, which are the noblest monuments of the Middle Ages.

In Italy, as over all Europe, many a solemn minster rose. Amongst the Italian temples of that date were the Cathedral of Pisa, and St. Mark's at Venice. In Italy the pure Gothic architecture never took root. There are, indeed, buildings called Gothic there; but the style is an awkward mixture of classic and Gothic. There are specimens of Norman buildings in southern Italy, and traces exist of Moorish mason-work too, especially in Sicily.

The history of early Florence may be read in the dark, square, rough-hewn mansions built for her restless nobles. Four piles of building, unadorned even by a pillar, surrounded a central court. On the summit frowned a heavy cornice, more like a rampart, as indeed it was. The lower story rose some thirty feet, either without windows, or pierced by a few grated loop-holes. Within such dark prison-houses the tyrant nobles were often forced to shut themselves, when the angry commons came surging like a stormy sea down the street, with pikes, and cross-bows, and shouts of war.

The constant feuds of the Italian towns drew into the peninsula hordes of mercenary soldiers. These Free Lances, or Companies of Adventurers, were led by captains called *Condottieri*. From city to city they roved, living by murder and pillage, ready to draw sword in the cause of the highest bidder. Sometimes the chances of war cast them to the head of the state, in whose cause or against whose freedom they were fighting. Since it was their object to make their profession pay, they lengthened out war into campaigns; and often for the length of a summer day rival bands of these rovers, tilting gracefully, perhaps unhorsing a foe now and again, fought without bloodshed, merely playing at soldiers.

Everywhere throughout Italy the shaven crown and sad-colored robe of the monk were to be seen. These men were often of the highest birth. The novice generally spent his preparatory year in herding swine and other drudgery; and sometimes, at the time of admission, was forced to lay his cowled head on the bare earth for three days and nights, while he mused on the mysteries of religion. And hard was the discipline by which the rank of saintship was sometimes won. St. Romuald, founder of many monasteries, passed several of his last years in perfect silence. The chief monasteries of Italy were placed high among the wooded cliffs of the Appenines. From the eighth to the thirteenth century most of the religious orders arose. The close of this period was marked by the institution of the two orders of begging friars—Franciscans and Dominicans—beneath whose foul, patched gowns and girdles of rope too often there lurked hearts swollen with lust and pride.

The devotion of the people found vent chiefly in pilgrimages. The Holy House of the Virgin, at Loretto, placed miraculously, so the story went, on the hill, was a favorite resort of remorseful penitents. The Jubilee Pilgrimages drew crowds to Rome every fifty years. And for three months of 1399, through all Italy, bands of penitents, dressed in white, with crucifix in hand, went singing a low, wailing hymn to the Virgin. It was no uncommon thing, about the same time, to see the Flagellants trooping along among the vineyards or through the city streets, with bleeding backs and limbs, on which their own cruel hands were laying the scourge.

In Venice the merchants went on 'Change in the little square of the Rialto. In the cool evenings the bridges were thronged with sailors, glass-workers, and silk-weavers. The waters of the canal were alive with the black-peaked gondolas. Faction-fights, sanctioned by the authorities, commonly took place on the Bridge of St. Barnabas, where black cap and sash slashed with stiletto or sword at his opposite neighbor, who, dwelling on the other side of the Grand Canal, wore red. Spies crept everywhere in Venice. The terror of the time has been already spoken of, when often in the dead midnight, a sullen splash in the waters told but too surely that to-morrow would see in some princely house a vacant chair that would never be filled again.

The citizens of Florence were of two grades—Greater and Less. The seven Greater trades were lawyers, dealers in foreign cloth, dealers in wool, silk-mercers, and, higher still, furriers, apothecaries, and goldsmiths. Among the fourteen Less guilds were butchers, smiths, shoemakers, builders. The seven Greater had each its own consul, council, and *gonfaloniere*, or standard-bearer, who led the guild to war. Such was the arrangement of the Guelph Constitution of Florence, formed in 1266.

Shows of various kinds were provided for the people by the rulers. The Carnival—wildest of modern Italian revels—was in the Middle Ages a religious festival only. There were, of course, in a land of song, many minstrels. Sometimes, as at Mantua in 1340, a court of pastime was proclaimed, to which, from all parts of Italy, resorted a motley crowd, princes and nobles mingling with actors, rope-dancers, and clowns. The glittering, many-colored Harlequin of our Christmas pantomimes, and his partner, Columbine, made their first appearance on the Italian comic stage. The tragedy of Punch and Judy, too, so often enacted in our streets, had its origin in the Italian puppet-show. The lighter amusements and pageants of chivalry, such as contests in music and poetry, and mock-trials upon points of honor, prevailed to a considerable extent in Italy; but rougher sports, like the tournament, had scarcely any home in the peninsula.

The court of the Florentine Medici shone conspicuous as the most splendid scene of mediæval life in Italy. The Roman court of the Borgias, a Spanish family, of whom two held the popedom (Calixtus III. and Alexander VI.), presented a spectacle of gilded and jewelled crime hardly paralleled in history.

Her works of literature and art give unfading lustre to mediæval Italy. Dante and Petrarch are foremost among her poets; and though all must lament the licentious taint which sullies his pages, none can help acknowledging the graceful beauty of many of Boccaccio's "Hundred Tales." The noonday of Italian art had not yet come. But to the close of the Middle Ages belongs Leonardo da Vinci, the painter of "The Last Supper." Born in the valley of the Arno in 1452, he drew his last breath at Fontainebleau, in the arms of King Francis I. of France (1519).

SPAIN.—Chivalry lingered in Spain long after it had died out in other parts of Europe. It received its death-blow from the sarcastic pen of Cervantes, whose inimitable "Don Quixote" turned the knight-errant into undying ridicule. The hostility of Moors and Spaniards contributed much to keep alive the spirit of knighthood, for the Moors were brilliant cavaliers, skilled in all knightly exercises, and therefore foemen well worthy of the Spanish steel. The Moors of Granada especially were noted for their skill with the cross-bow, and in horsemanship. The chivalry of the Spanish Moors displayed itself in the freedom granted to their wives and daughters, who, unlike the women of Mahometan lands in general, mingled freely in the most public society. The learned ladies attended academic meetings; and the fair sex, as with the Christians, rewarded the victors in the tournament.

Three great military brotherhoods succeeded the dominion of the Templars and Hospitallers in Spain. These were the Orders of St. Jago, Calatrava, and Alcantara.

The chief object of the Order of St. Jago (St. James), which was established by papal bull in 1175, was to protect from the attacks of the Arabs those who were making a pilgrimage to the saint's tomb in Galicia. The cavaliers wore a white mantle, embroidered with a sword and the escalop shell, which was the device of their patron. The knights of Calatrava, whose order was established in 1164, kept perfect silence at table and in bed, ate meat only three times a week, and slept sword by side. The knights of Alcantara wore a white mantle with a green cross.

The reign of Ferdinand and Isabella was remarkable for the establishment of the Inquisition in Spain. Four priests, armed with terrible powers, were sent in 1480 to commence operations in Seville, Pope Sixtus IV. having already issued a bull to authorize their appointment. Ere a year had passed, three hundred Jews had perished. Suddenly and silently

the accused was snatched from his friends. None but his jailer and a priest were permitted to see him. If he refused to confess his guilt, the torture was applied in a dungeon, whose thick walls no cry could pierce. Then, with dislocated joints and crushed bones, he was flung into a dark cell once more, perhaps not to leave it again but for the last sad scene.

This was the Auto da Fé (Act of Faith). Clad in black, the highest nobles of Spain bore the flag of the Inquisition. The Romish priests stood round, robed in their gorgeous vestments. The wretched victims were brought out to die, clad in *san benitos*. These were long robes of coarse wool, dyed yellow, and painted with a red cross and the figures of devils and flames. The populace thronged to witness the exciting spectacle; and a savage joy thrilled the assembled crowds as the red-tongued flame licked up the life of the so-called heretics.

In the days of Isabella the study of Latin and rhetoric was fashionable among the ladies of Spain. The queen herself was a woman of much literary taste, speaking her own tongue with elegance, and versed, too, in several modern languages. Latin she studied after her accession, and took only a year to gain great proficiency in it. She took delight in the collection of manuscripts, which in that day were, according to Moorish fashion, bound in bright colors, and richly decorated. We read of Spanish ladies of this time lecturing from the university chairs upon classical literature and kindred subjects.

The first printing-press in Spain seems to have been set up at Valencia in 1474; and the first book printed there was a collection of songs in honor of the Virgin.

A meeting of Ferdinand and Isabella, during the Moorish war, is thus described by the curate of Los Palacios: "The queen sat in a saddle-chair embossed with gold and silver, upon a chestnut mule, whose housings were of crimson, and bridle of gold-embroidered satin. The infanta, her daughter, wore a scarlet mantle of the Moorish fashion, a black hat laced with gold, and a skirt of velvet. The king figured in a crimson doublet, and breeches of yellow satin, a cuirass and Moorish scimitar. Both king and queen wore a close-fitting coif of fine stuff below the hat, to confine the hair."

The tournament was the great pastime of the day. Splendid galleries, hung with silk and cloth of gold, enclosed the lists. After the day's tilting, music and dancing enlivened the evening hours. Bull-fights—now the grand national sport of Spain—and the graceful tilt of reeds were foremost among the popular amusements.

We find dramatic entertainments taking their rise in Spain, as in our own country, in the mysteries or sacred plays of the clergy. A law, passed in the thirteenth century to forbid some profanities that were

creeping into the performances, laid down as fit subjects for exhibition, the birth, crucifixion, and resurrection of our Saviour. Towards the close of the Middle Ages we read of the Spanish stage being constructed of a few planks laid upon benches. The "properties"—consisting of four dresses of white fur and gilt leather, with accompanying beards, wigs, and crooks—were then carried in a single sack.

GREAT NAMES OF THE SIXTH PERIOD.

JOHN FAUST, a goldsmith and engraver of Mentz—one of the earliest printers—associated for five years with Guttenberg in the working of a press with movable metal types (1450–55)—first work printed, "An Indulgence of Pope Nicholas V."—died 1466, at Paris.

THOMAS 'A KEMPIS, born about 1380, at Kempen, near Cologne—studied at Deventer—became a canon of the monastery of Mount St. Agnes—transcribed the Bible, the Missal, and other religious books—good copyist, and fond of it—said to be author of four books of great merit, entitled, "De Imitatione Christi," but he transcribed these from older manuscripts. The work is more justly ascribed to John Gerson, of Paris, who died 1429—T. 'A Kempis died in 1471, aged 90.

ANGELO POLITIAN, born in Tuscany, 1454—in after life took the name of Poliziano—a great friend of Lorenzo de Medici, whose children he educated—professor of Latin and Greek at Florence—wrote scholia and notes to many ancient authors—translated into Latin the History of Herodian—noted also for his Italian poems—wrote "Orfeo," which is said to be the earliest specimen of the opera, or Italian musical drama.

LEONARDO DA VINCI, born in the Val d'Arno, below Florence, in 1452—a famous painter—remarkable for his knowledge of other arts and sciences—his works are not many—one of his greatest is "The Last Supper," painted on the wall of the Dominican convent of the Madonna delle Grazie—wrote very many treatises—lived much at Rome, but died at Fontainebleau, in France, 2d May, 1519, aged 67.

SANZIO RAPHAEL, born at Urbino, 6th April, 1483—perhaps the greatest of modern painters—lived both at Florence and Rome—the "Transfiguration" usually considered his master-piece—famous for his Madonnas—died on his birth-day, 1520, at the early age of 37.

SEVENTH PERIOD.

FROM THE REFORMATION TO THE CLOSE OF THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

CHAPTER I.

THE REFORMATION.

Central Point: THE DIET OF AUGSBURG, 1530 A.D.

Earlier Protestants—Sources of the Reformation—Three central figures—Luther's early days—The cloisters of Erfurt—Professor at Wittenberg—Sale of indulgences—The ninety-five theses—The disputation at Leipsic—Burning of the papal bull—The Diet of Worms—The Castle of Wartburg—Ulric Zwingle—Diet of Augsburg—Last days of Luther—John Calvin—Settles in Geneva—Stay in Strasburg—His return to Geneva—His code of discipline—Death and character.

THERE were Protestants before Luther. Paulinus of Aquileia, in the days of Charlemagne; the Albigenses, in sunny Languedoc; the Waldenses, in the valleys of Piedmont; John Wycliffe, in England; Huss and Jerome, the Bohemians, who perished in the flames at Constance; and Savonarola, who met the same fate at Florence, all nobly deserved the noble name.

But it was not until the printing-presses of Guttenberg and Faust and Caxton had multiplied books, especially the Bible, a thousandfold, and the capture of Constantinople by the Turks had scattered far and wide the Greeks and their language—thus giving to the West the key to the right understanding of the New Testament—that central Europe, in the gray dawn of a new era, could see the shackles laid on her by Rome, and summon all her might to tear them from her burdened limbs.

Then, in the fulness of the time, Martin Luther arose, and, somewhat later, John Calvin and Ulric Zwingle, the three leaders of the Continental Reformation. Grouped round these three grand central figures stood a little band of brave spirits, foremost among whom were Melancthon, the friend of Luther; Lefevre and Farel, the associates of Calvin.

Luther, the son of a miner, was born at Eisleben, in Saxony, in December, 1483. While at school in Eisenach, he used to sing in the streets for bread—a custom which was common among the German students. Entering the University of Erfurt, he took his degree in 1505; he was then twenty-two.

Toward the close of his college life, which was free and jovial, three

events stirred his mind powerfully: he found in the library a Latin Bible; a dear friend died; and he himself was sick nigh unto death. Calling his fellow-students around him one night, he entertained them at a merry supper; and scarcely had they left his lodging, when he stood knocking at the door of the Augustine convent, with two books in his hand—a Virgil and a Plautus. His three years within the cloisters of Erfurt were spent in terrible mental struggles, and in vain attempts to gain peace by monkish fastings and penances. It was not until the advice of Staupitz, his vicar-general, directed him to the Bible and the works of St. Augustine, that Luther began to see light. We, who glory in the privileges of Protestantism, owe a deep debt of gratitude to that wise and kind-hearted priest, who, pitying pale and haggard young Brother Martin, showed him the tree of life.

In 1508 Luther was appointed Professor of Philosophy in the University of Wittenberg. There he won renown as a bold and original preacher. The little old wooden chapel of the convent could not hold his audience. The great idea of the Reformation was now taking full possession of his soul. So strong was its influence, that when he went to Rome in 1510 or 11, on a certain mission, and tried to climb Pilate's staircase on his knees, as an act of penance, his conscience never ceased to thunder in his soul, "The just shall live by faith." The Rome of that day he found to be a hotbed of infidelity, blasphemy, and crime. In 1512 he was made Doctor of Divinity. So far we have traced the outlines of his preparation; now for his great work.

Leo X., in want of money to build St. Peter's at Rome, authorized the sale of indulgences. John Tetzel, a Dominican monk, arrived within a few miles of Wittenberg with a bundle of these paper lies, and the simple country-folk of Saxony crowded round his counter to buy. With brow of brass and lungs of leather, he shouted all day long the wonderful powers of the indulgence. "Drop a penny in my box for some poor wretch in purgatory," said he, "and the moment it clinks on the bottom, the freed soul flies up to heaven." Luther heard of these things, and saw their effect upon some of his own flock, who, believing themselves pardoned by the indulgence they had bought, refused to submit to his direction. He felt the time had come for the first blow in a momentous struggle. "God willing," said he, "I will beat a hole in his drum."

Then, shaping his belief on the subject of the indulgences into ninety-five theses or propositions, he sent a copy of them to the Archbishop of Magdeburg; and on the same day—that which we call Hallow-Eve—he nailed another copy, signed with his name, on the gate of the Castle Church of Wittenberg. In these theses Luther did not altogether deny the power of the

Oct. 31, 1517 A.D.

Church to grant absolution; but he maintained that, unless there was real contrition on the part of a sinner, an indulgence was of no avail. This public defiance was the starting-point of the Reformation. The news ran with lightning-speed through Germany and Europe.

Tetzel, retiring to Frankfort on the Oder, issued a list of counter theses, maintaining the infallibility and the supreme authority of the pope. These were burned by the students of Wittenberg, who entered heart and soul into the cause of their professor. Pope Leo, a literary and architectural amateur, heard a buzz in Germany, but treated it lightly, as a monkish quarrel. "This Luther," said he, "is a man of genius; he writes well."

Cajetan, the papal legate, a smooth and subtle Italian, was foiled in an attempt to make Luther retract at a conference held at Augsburg. Miltitz, a German, had apparently better success—having enticed Luther into a conditional promise to keep silence upon the disputed points.

The disputation of Leipsic, however, proved that Luther had not merely drawn the sword, but had flung away the scabbard. When that man, of middle size, so thin as to seem mere skin and bone, yet with nothing forbidding or sad in his bright, happy face, mounted the platform in the royal hall of Duke George, with a bouquet of flowers in his hand, those who sat around—the noblest, and wisest, and most learned in the land—must have wondered at the daring of the solitary monk. Yet not solitary, for the shield of God was over him; and thousands of German hearts blessed him where he stood. Dr. Eck, Professor of Divinity at Ingolstadt, a man noted through all Germany for skill in controversy, was his rival. Taking his stand upon the text, "Thou art Peter, and upon this rock I will build my Church," Eck maintained the supremacy of the pope. Luther applying the word "rock" to Christ, contended that He was the sole and absolute Head of the Church. So the fencing went on for days, and they parted, each claiming the victory.

June, 1519 A.D.

During the following summer, Luther published a few pages of an address to the Christian nobles of Germany, in which, with that strong, blunt speech that he was noted for, he characterized the seat of papacy as a devil's nest. His work "On the Babylonish Captivity of the Church," followed in autumn.

At length the thunder of Rome broke forth. A bull was published, declaring Luther a heretic, ordering his writings to be burned, and summoning him to Rome within sixty days. The crisis had come, and bravely the monk of Saxony met it. One winter day, gathering the students and townsfolk of Wittenberg to the Elster Gate, he cast the papal bull, a document once so potent and terrible, into the flames of a fire of wood.

Dec. 10, 1520 A.D.

A few months later he set out for Worms, where the young emperor, Charles V., was holding his first Diet of the German States. Greatly had the soul of Luther rejoiced when he received a summons to plead his cause in so proud a presence. He journeyed slowly, crowds thronging round his coach, and joyous music welcoming him at every stage. Friendly warnings met him; a heavy sickness seized him on the way; yet still he pressed undaunted on. And when the roofs and spires of Worms rose in view, standing up in his carriage, he sang the famous hymn, "*Ein feste Burg ist unser Gott*," which has ever since borne his name. That night, till very late, his inn was thronged with nobles and scholars. But when all were gone, alone, upon his knees, he sobbed out a broken prayer, casting himself at this hour of great need entirely upon the help of God.

Next day, as the April sun was near its setting, he came before the emperor, who sat enthroned among his splendid courtiers. It was a striking contrast—a pale monk against a brilliant court. As at Leipsic, his cheek was thin; but there was that within his heart which could brave the dark looks of the red-robed cardinals and violet-clad bishops, the sneers of dressy Spaniards, or the wrath of the great emperor himself. Eck rose to ask him if he would retract his works. Luther required a day to prepare his reply; and next day he closed a two hours' speech in German and in Latin thus: "Unless I be convinced by Scripture and reason, I neither can nor dare retract anything; for my conscience is a captive to God's word, and it is netiher safe nor right to go against conscience. Here I take my stand; I can do no otherwise. So help me God." **April 17, 1521** A.D.

Paul himself might have spoken the brave and honest words. He was then dismissed from Worms, the emperor having declared his resolve to treat him as a heretic. Luther's own epitome, in a letter to a friend, of the proceedings of these three momentous days is a gem of condensation. "Are the books yours?"—"Yes." "Will you revoke, or not?"—"No." "Get you gone then."

On his way home, he was seized by a band of armed men in masks, and carried to the Castle of the Wartburg up among the mountains. This is said to have been done by his friend, the Elector of Saxony, to keep him out of harm's way. There he lived for about a year disguised as a knight, rambling, hunting, and writing. During this retirement he began his great work, the translation of the Bible into German. Before he left Wartburg he had finished the New Testament; but the entire work was not completed until 1534. The news that Carlstadt and other extreme Reformers were carrying things with a high hand at Wittenberg, smashing images, and seeking to banish from the university all books but the Bible, called Luther down from the mountains. Then came a controversy with Carl-

stadt, who was forced to flee from Saxony to Switzerland. A quarrel between Luther and Erasmus occurred about the same time.

In 1524, Luther threw off his monk's dress; in the following year he married Catherine Von Bora, an escaped nun. About the same time the Peasants' War, excited by the Anabaptists under Munzer, arose in the Black Forest, and raged throughout the Rhine provinces, ending in the slaughter of fifty thousand people. Luther, whose enemies blamed him for this outbreak, took the rashness of the misguided peasants deeply to heart, and inveighed bitterly against their mad actions.

In 1529, the Landgrave of Hesse, desirous of a union between the Reformers of Germany and Switzerland, invited Luther and Zwingle to meet at Marburg.

Zwingle was born in 1484—a Swiss farmer's son. He saw service early in life, as chaplain to the Swiss troops in Italy. After he was settled as a preacher at home, the sale of indulgences excited his anger at Einsiedlen, as it had excited Luther's at Wittenberg. At Zurich, somewhat later, he preached reform more boldly still, and won for that canton the honor of being the first to embrace the pure doctrines of Protestantism. His great mistake as a Reformer was the attempt to mix politics with religion—to reform the State while he purified the Church.

When the Swiss and the Saxon met at Marburg, they differed upon the subject of the Lord's Supper. Luther maintained the doctrine of consubstantiation, in which he was a steadfast believer; Zwingle verged to the opposite extreme; and they parted, no great friends. Two years later, in a war between the Reformed and the Romish cantons, Zwingle, whose warlike spirit led him to join the ranks of the Zurichers, was killed in the battle of Cappel.

1529 A.D. A diet was held at Spires in the spring of 1529, partly to raise forces for the Turkish war, and partly to settle, if possible, the religious differences of the nation. The Romish party having drawn up a decree in favor of their creed, the Lutherans gave in their famous "Protest," from which they were henceforth called Protestants. The names of the Elector of Saxony, the Margrave of Brandenburg, the Landgrave of Hesse, the Duke of Lünenburg, the Prince of Anhalt, and the deputies of fourteen cities, were affixed to this document.

1530 A.D. Next year, a great assembly of princes met at Augsburg. Luther was not there, but Melancthon was; and to this gentle friend of the brave Reformer fell the task of reading the celebrated Confession of the Protestant Faith. In twenty-one articles the belief of Protestants was summed up; the remaining seven were devoted to the errors of Rome. The document was written by Melancthon, but much of the matter was Luther's.

Although this Confession was condemned by the Diet of Augsburg, the determined attitude of the Protestants made the decision of little use. The emperor wavered, not willing to estrange so powerful a section of the German nation. The league of Protestants at Smalcald and Frankfort gave new strength to the cause of truth, and the emperor, whose grand object then was to lead all Germany into the field against the Turks, annulled the proceedings of the Diets held at Worms and Augsburg. This victory of Protestantism marks, for the time, at least, the close of the struggle. **1530** A.D.

Luther lived until 1546, writing and teaching at Wittenberg. Every year saw the doctrines for which he had so stoutly contended, spreading more widely. There was much to vex him in the perils which still beset the cause, and in the follies of some of its friends; but within his little home there was peace. While visiting his native town, Eisleben, to reconcile the Counts of Mansfield, he died after a short illness. As he said himself, "The world is weary of me, and I of the world." His work was done: he lay down to sleep. Well for us all, if, when the summons comes, *our* work be so bravely and fully done! He was a blunt, affectionate, jovial man; free-spoken sometimes, but always to the point. His tender love of his Kate and children, and his noble, manly trust in God, endear to our grateful hearts this first and greatest of the Reformers.

No sketch of the Reformation would be complete without a notice of John Calvin. Born in 1509, at Noyon, in Picardy, he received his education chiefly in the schools of Paris, and afterwards attended law-classes at Orleans and Bruges. The study of the Bible, and the conversation of two friends, first opened his mind to the truths of the Reformed faith, while he was a student at Orleans; and his association at Bruges with the Professor of Greek, Melchior Wolmar, deepened his convictions of Romish error. To teach religion then became his grand desire. After many vain efforts to teach the Reformed doctrines peacefully in France, we find him an exile at Basle. There, in 1535, he published the first outline of his great work, "The Institutes of the Christian Religion," which was undoubtedly the book of the Reformation, and is still a standard text-book in some of our schools. After a stay of some time in Italy, and a short visit to France, he settled in Geneva, in the summer of 1536.

Here he became teacher and preacher of theology; and in conjunction with Farel, framed a Confession of Faith for the citizens; who were, however, scarcely yet prepared for the strict, and, as some thought, over-rigid discipline which he sought to establish. A hostile party accordingly arose, known as the Libertines, whose influence grew strong enough to banish Calvin and Farel from the city.

Strasburg was Calvin's refuge; and during his three quiet years of liter-

ary and pastoral labor in that city, he married. His strong interest in the Genevans was shown by two remarkable letters, written from Strasburg, to strengthen them in the Protestant faith. The completion of the Institutes in 1539, too, marks this green resting-place in a troubled life.

Late in 1540, he received a letter from the Council of Geneva, entreating him to return; and in the autumn of the following year he obeyed the call. He lost no time in laying down a code of laws, regulating, not the Church only, but the minutest details of every-day life.

The rest of Calvin's hard-working life was spent in this city, which became a great centre of the Reformation. Controversy filled up his days, for enemies were thick around him. After a long struggle, he expelled the Libertines from the city. By many, he is supposed to have given his sanction to the burning of the Spaniard Servetus, who denied the doctrine of the Trinity—a circumstance which, if true, only affords another melancholy proof that even the greatest and purest spirits cannot always rise above the prevailing spirit and rooted prejudices of the age in which they live.

After much suffering from gout and other diseases, this great man died, one evening in May, just as the sun was setting. His frame
1564 was meagre, and rather low-sized; his sallow face told of hard
A.D. study and rigorous self-denial.

He stands out among a noble army, as the great lawgiver and organizer of the Reformed Church—the "impersonation of the spirit of order in the surging movement of the sixteenth century."

POPES OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

	A.D.
Alexander VI.	——
Pius III.	1503
Julius II.	1503
Leo X.	1513
Adrian VI.	1522
Clement VII.	1523
Paul III.	1534
Julius III.	1550
Marcellus II.	1555
Paul IV.	1555
Pius IV.	1559
Pius V.	1566
Gregory XIII.	1572
Sixtus V.	1585
Urban VII.	1590

GREGORY XIV..... 1590
INNOCENT IX..... 1591
CLEMENT VIII..... 1592

CHAPTER II.

THE EMPEROR CHARLES V.

Central Point: BATTLE OF PAVIA, 1525 A.D.

Early life of Charles—Becomes King of Spain—Elected Emperor—Troubles in Spain—War with Francis I.—Imprisonment of Francis—Sack of Rome—The Treaty of Cambray—Anabaptist war—The taking of Tunis—Invasion of France—The great design of Charles—Close of the French war—Council of Trent—Rise of the Jesuits—Maurice of Saxony—The interim—The danger at Innspruck—Peace of Passau—Resignation of Charles—His cloister life—His death and character.

CHARLES, the son of Philip the Handsome, Archduke of Austria, and the grandson of the Emperor Maximilian, was born at Ghent early in 1500. His mother was Joanna, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. His early life was spent in the Netherlands, where Adrian of Utrecht acted as his tutor. But the tastes of the young prince lay rather in warlike exercises than in books. History and politics were made the groundwork of his education. At the age of fifteen he assumed the government of Flanders, which came to him through his grandmother, Mary of Burgundy.

The death of Ferdinand, in 1516, placed on his head the brilliant crown of Spain, which he held jointly with his mad mother Joanna. The celebrated Cardinal Ximenes, long the faithful minister of the dead king, ruled as regent, until Charles, whose Flemish friends, in their jealousy of the Spaniards, kept him among them for more than a twelve-month, reached the shore of Asturias. There a splendid throng of Spanish nobles welcomed their new king. Ximenes, kept back by illness, wrote to the young monarch, advising him to dismiss all strangers from his train, or he would mortally offend the haughty grandees. The sensible advice was rejected, and the poor old cardinal, stabbed by a cold, cruel letter of reply, laid down his gray head to die.

While at Barcelona, Charles heard that his grandfather Maximilian was dead. At once a great struggle for the vacant empire began, between the young King of Spain and Francis I. of France. The seven Electors, with whom the choice lay, fearing that the power of such candidates would be dangerous to the liberties of Germany, offered the crown to Frederick, Duke of Saxony. But he, refusing it on the ground that his hand was too weak to hold the sceptre, when the Turks were showing so threatening a front along the eastern borders, advised that Charles, a German by blood and by tongue, should

1519 A.D.

be elected emperor. So Don Carlos I., whose dominions now embraced Austria, the Netherlands, Naples, and Spain, with all its golden possessions beyond the Atlantic, became Charles V., Emperor of Germany.

In the following year he was crowned with the diadem of Charlemagne, at Aix-la-Chapelle. In sketching the story of his reign, his share in the great scenes of the Reformation need not be touched on, since they have been noticed in the previous chapter.

The appointment of his tutor Adrian to be Regent of Spain, and other acts of the same kind, kindled a rebellion in the peninsula. Many towns, Toledo among the number, took up arms. A "Holy Junta," or association of deputies, was formed; and Joanna, then enjoying a lucid interval, was entreated to take the government into her hands. She graciously consented; but, when the glimpse of reason had passed away, she could never be got to sign a paper. War began. The troops of the Junta, successful at first, were in the end defeated. They lost the favor of the nobles and the clergy. The arrival of Charles, who soon won the hearts of the alarmed Spaniards, by granting a free pardon to all, except some twenty of the ringleaders, calmed the tumult; and the removal to Italy of Adrian, who had just been made pope, helped to re-establish peace in Spain.

The grand struggle of the time was between Charles and his brilliant rival, Francis of France. Italy, so often the battle-field of Europe, was the theatre of war. There, in 1515, Francis had, by a rapid dash over the Alps, made himself master of Milan and Lombardy. But, nine years later, in one short season, he lost his brave Chevalier Bayard, and every fragment of his Italian conquests. And then was fought the great battle of Pavia, in which the generals of Charles shattered the French power in Italy beyond repair. King Francis, fighting in the front like a gallant young soldier, received many wounds, and had his horse killed under him; but the desertion of his Swiss troops, and an attack upon the rear, scattered his brave battalions. He was taken prisoner, and ten thousand of his noblest lay dead upon the bloody field. "Madame," wrote he to his mother, "all is lost but honor!"

Feb. 24, 1525 A.D.

After lying in prison at Madrid for nearly a year, Francis regained his freedom by a treaty, in which he agreed to give up to Charles the Duchy of Burgundy, to renounce all his pretensions to Italy, and to give as hostages his eldest and second sons. Between France and Spain, on the waters of the Andaye, the father and sons met—they, bound for a Spanish prison—he, for the free French shore. Landing, he sprang on his Turkish steed, and dashed off for Bayonne, with the joyous words, "I am yet a king." The promise about Burgundy was never fulfilled, and the war was at once renewed.

The league, now formed against the emperor by Francis, included the

pope, upon whom the heavy hand of Charles soon fell. Bourbon, once High Constable of France, who had been driven thence by the malice of the king's mother, led to Rome the imperial troops, mutinous for want of pay. Rushing on the city in the mist of morning, they scaled the walls, and, nothing daunted by their leader's death, who was struck down from a ladder by a musket-ball, they fought their way into the city. A fearful scene of plunder and debauchery ensued. Pope Clement, who had shut himself into the Castle of St. Angelo, was soon starved into a surrender. **1527 A.D.**

Charles tried to calm the indignation which this act roused, by pretending deep sorrow for the imprisonment of the pope. His court went into mourning, and prayers were offered up for "His Holiness" in the churches of Madrid. But all Europe saw through the flimsy veil. Francis I. and Henry VIII. of England united against the emperor. The French army entered Italy. The fiery Francis challenged his rival to fight a duel, and Charles agreed; but after some hard names had been bandied between the monarchs, the matter dropped. Misfortunes then fell thick on Francis. One heavy blow was the revolt of Andrew Doria, a famous sailor of Genoa, who had been fighting under the French colors. In quick succession there followed the ruin of a French army before Naples, by hunger and disease, and the loss of Genoa. The threatening attitude of the Turks, and the ferment of the Reformation in Germany, inducing Charles to wish for peace, two old ladies—the emperor's aunt and the king's mother—met quietly in the little border town of Cambray, to talk over the matter. There a treaty was agreed to, in terms of which Francis was to pay two millions of crowns, to resign Flanders and Artois, and to give up all thoughts of Italy; while Charles was to set free the French princes, and to say no more about the promised Burgundy. **1529 A.D.**

In the following year, at Bologna, Charles was crowned Emperor and King of Lombardy by the pope, whom he had so hardly used.

The war of the German peasants, excited by the Anabaptist Munzer, has been already noticed. The doings of this sect assumed a more alarming phase, when, in 1533, Matthias, a baker, and Boccold, a tailor, seizing the Westphalian city of Munster, and changing its name to Mount Zion, set up a commonwealth, of which polygamy was the most notable feature. Upon the death of Matthias, Boccold assumed the title of king. But after a long blockade Munster was taken; and the tailor-king, having been carried in chains through the cities of Germany, was put to death with lingering tortures, where he had held his guilty court. **1535 A.D.**

Twice Charles led great expeditions to the coast of Africa: one, a bril-

liant success, in 1535, the other a wretched failure, in 1541. All the harbors of Barbary swarmed with Mahometan pirates, of whom the chief was the daring Barbarossa. Sultan Solyman, flattered by the submission of this wily corsair, had given him the command of the Ottoman fleet; and Barbarossa, thus strengthened, had seized the kingdom of Tunis. To dislodge him, and thus cripple the Turkish power by sea, was the object of the enterprise of Charles. The great fort of Goletta, bristling with three hundred cannon, was carried with a rush by the troops of the emperor. And when the defenders of Tunis were driven back into the city in headlong rout, ten thousand Christian slaves, who had knocked off their irons, turned the guns of the citadel upon the pirates. Barbarossa fled in dismay; the imperial troops, wild for plunder, burst into the streets, and Tunis was filled with riot and blood. Then, having restored the exiled king to his throne, Charles recrossed the sea.

At once the French war was renewed. Savoy was overrun by French soldiers, but speedily lost. Charles then invaded Provence with fifty thousand men. But Montmorency stood firm in his camp at Avignon; Marseilles and Arles were besieged in vain; and after two inglorious months, the emperor re-entered Italy a baffled man. Through the mediation of Pope Paul III., a truce for ten years was concluded at Nice in 1538.

Next year we find Charles trusting so far to his rival's honor, as to seek permission to travel from Spain to the Netherlands through France, that he might punish the revolted citizens of Ghent. The leave being freely given, he passed safely through the hostile land, everywhere splendidly received.

The favorite design of Charles during all his reign, was to roll back the tide of Moslem war which threatened Christendom on the east. Solyman and his Turks now subdued Hungary. But his constant and wasting wars with Francis prevented the emperor from ever realizing this glorious vision. The terror of his name, indeed, did something to blunt the Turkish sabre. We have already seen him striking a blow at Tunis, on the Barbary shore. He aimed another at Algiers late in the autumn of 1541; but it was a blow that recoiled upon himself; for storm, and sword, and hunger, and plague drove him back to Europe with but a miserable wreck of his splendid force.

The outbreak of renewed war between Charles and Francis marks the year 1542. The worthless truce was cast aside. Francis, forming an alliance with Solyman, raised five great armies; Charles, with his ally, Henry of England, gloated over a fancied partition of France, which seemed to float in his future. However, the defeat of the emperor at Cerisoles, where he lost ten thousand men, quenched these glowing hopes, and the strife was closed by the peace of Crespy in 1544.

Toward the close of the following year the nineteenth and last of the general councils met at Trent. Nominally convened to settle religious differences by fair discussion, it was yet a packed assembly filled with Italian bishops, whose overwhelming number enabled the pope to turn the course of debate at his will. The Council of Trent, continuing to sit at intervals during eighteen years, denounced the doctrines of Luther; it is therefore not surprising that the Protestants have always denied its legality, while the Church of Rome still appeals to its decisions as a great standard of faith, morals, and discipline. Foremost in all its deliberations were the Jesuits—a new order of monks founded by Ignatius Loyola, a meagre Spaniard, once a soldier, who, with five others—Francis Xavier among them—had sworn one starry night, on the top of Montmartre, to devote himself to the cause of his tottering Church. Formally instituted in 1540, these roving monks, who, in addition to the three usual vows, took an oath of implicit obedience to superiors, made their first great public appearance at the Council of Trent; and ever since, with a wonderful and restless energy, in court, and camp, and market-place, and private house, all the world over, they have been weaving their dark plots against Protestantism.

The chief events which marked the remaining years of the Emperor Charles, belong to the history of Germany. Francis I. and Luther died within a few months of each other; and Charles, thus freed from his two great opponents, resolved to root out the reformed faith at once, by force of arms. The Protestants of Germany took the field; but an ill-timed negotiation wasted the precious days which should have been spent in active war. There was a traitor in their camp—Maurice of Saxony—a deep, smooth-faced hypocrite, whose guiding star was self. This man, joining the emperor, invaded Saxony. The league of Smalcald fell to pieces. The Elector of Saxony and the Landgrave of Hesse alone stood sword in hand; but the former was defeated and made prisoner at the battle of Mulhausen in 1547, and the latter was soon terrified into a surrender. Maurice received as the price of his infamy the Electorate of Saxony.

Great seemed the glory of Charles now—the sword of Francis rusting in the grave, the tongue and pen of Luther stilled forever, the great league of Protestantism lying in shivers, and its two boldest champions chained at his feet.

It was at this time that the emperor published his celebrated system of religious doctrine, called the "Interim," because it professed to settle the points in dispute in a temporary way. An unhappy move, which pleased neither party—seeming to the one to yield too much, and to the other too little.

Maurice, meanwhile, had been growing tired of the emperor's service. His father-in-law, the Landgrave of Hesse, was still a prisoner in spite of

his pleading. And, although a traitor to the Protestant cause, he had yet a lingering feeling that it was good and true. Managing cleverly to hoodwink the emperor until his plans were ripe, and taking care to secure the alliance of the French king, Henry II., he appeared suddenly

1552 A.D. at the head of twenty-five thousand men, and issued a manifesto, setting forth his reasons for the daring step. These were three—to secure the Protestant religion, to maintain the German constitution, and to deliver the Landgrave of Hesse from bondage.

Sweeping rapidly through Upper Germany, he moved upon Innspruck, where Charles lay ill of the gout; and so quick was his approach that the emperor, gaining only a few hours' start, was obliged to flee over the Alps, carried by torch-light in a litter through the dark and rainy night. Hostilities ensued; but the poverty of Charles and his dread of a French war forced him to conclude a peace at Passau, by which he granted to Maurice the three demands (1552). The Diet of Augsburg meeting three years later, confirmed this treaty by a solemn declaration, known as the Peace of Religion.

At the age of fifty-six, Charles resigned the sceptre of Spain and the Low Countries to his son Philip, for whom he had been vainly

1556 A.D. trying, during some years, to secure the empire. Addressing the assembled States of his native land at Brussels, he recounted what he had done in fulfillment of his public duty, pleaded broken health as the cause of his resignation, and touchingly sought the pardon of those whom he had neglected or injured. Sailing from the Netherlands to Spain, he soon hid his weary head within the monastery of Yuste, in Estremadura; and there, amid dark woods of oak and chestnut, and under the shadow of a great mountain chain, he spent two quiet years, devoting much time to religious exercises, still taking an interest in public matters, but quite content to listen to the hum of the restless world as to the roar of a far-off sea. The rich landscapes around him, and his collection of pictures, especially eight gems from the glowing pencil of his well-loved Titian, were never-failing sources of delight; but his favorite occupation, which he pursued with the help of an Italian engineer, was the making of time-pieces and little puppets—amongst which are mentioned soldiers, dancing-girls, and wooden birds that could fly in and out of the window.

In the summer of 1558 he took the strange notion of having his own funeral rites performed. The chapel was hung with black; dim wax lights burned all around; a huge scaffolding, draped with black, was

1558 A.D. reared in the centre; and round it stood the mourners, Charles himself bearing a taper in the sombre ring. As the wailing chant arose, a strange chill struck through his blood, and a few hours later he was laid in a raging fever upon the bed from which he never

rose again. The gout, racking him for years, had so wasted his strength that in three weeks he breathed his last (21st September, 1558).

As a monarch and a statesman, Charles V. possessed shining qualities. Few could so skillfully have guided the ever-tangling threads of politics in three great realms. Amid discontented Spaniards, surly Flemings, and intriguing Italians, with French cannon ever thundering in the west, and the flash of Turkish sabres gleaming along his eastern frontier, with all Germany agitated by a question that stirred the heart to its lowest depths, he yet held his power unbroken, reading the men around him at a glance, and shaping out his own course with a rapid and dauntless decision. The secret of his success lay chiefly in his untiring industry. His great faults were those of an ambitious man. The haunting fear of his life was, that, like his mother, he should die mad; from this, however, he was mercifully spared.

GERMAN EMPERORS OF THE HOUSE OF AUSTRIA.

	A.D.
Albert II.	1438
Interregnum	1439
Frederick IV.	1440
Maximilian I.	1493
Charles V.	1519
Ferdinand I.	1558
Maximilian II.	1564
Rodolph II.	1576
Matthias	1612
Ferdinand II.	1619
Ferdinand III.	1637
Leopold I.	1658
Joseph I.	1705
Charles VI.	1711
Maria Theresa	1740
Charles VII.	1742
Francis I.	1745
Joseph II.	1765
Leopold II.	1790
Francis II.	1792

CHAPTER III.

THE RISE OF THE DUTCH REPUBLIC.

Central Point: THE SIEGE OF LEYDEN, 1574 A.D.

Philip of Spain—Les Gueux—Counts Egmont and Horn—Cruelty of Alva—Rise of the Dutch Navy—Siege and relief of Leyden—Sack of Antwerp—Pacification of Ghent—Don John and the Archduke—Union of Utrecht—Murder of William—Independence acknowledged—Prosperity of Holland.

WHEN Charles V. retired to the convent of Yuste, his son, Philip II. of Spain, a cold-hearted and bigoted Romanist, the husband of one Queen of England, the rejected suitor and beaten foe of her successor, received the Netherlands as a part of his dominions. Throughout the well-tilled fields of this country, where such cities as Brussels the Noble, Ghent the Great, Mechlin the Beautiful, and Antwerp the Rich, arose strong and prosperous, the doctrines of the Reformation had spread fast. Philip resolved to root out the heresy.

Having made his half-sister, Margaret of Parma, regent, he attempted to introduce the Inquisition. But the attempt was met with a storm of opposition. The Dutch had heard of the Auto da Fé, and
1566 knew how Mexico had been drenched in blood. "We are no
A.D. stupid Mexicans," said they. "We will maintain our ancient rights." The nobles, walking two and two to the palace, with Count de Brederode at their head, presented a petition against the Inquisition. "Ah!" said a sneering courtier as he looked upon the procession, "it's a heap of beggars." The name stuck to the faction, who were henceworth called *Les Gueux*—the beggars. The king taking no notice of this protest of the nobles, the Dutch rose in revolt with the storming of monasteries and the destruction of many fine pictures. This was what Philip wanted. He had now a pretext for executing his bloody schemes.

The Duke of Alva, whose name is a by-word for bigoted cruelty, entered Brussels with twelve thousand Spanish and some German troops, in the summer of 1567. The shadows of the coming storm fell deep upon the hearts of the Dutch, as the news of Alva's march was buzzed about the land. Many fled in fear; most of them to England. Brederode soon died in exile. The greatest man of all, the central figure of a magnificent drama—William the Silent, Prince of Orange—unable as yet to organize an effective movement of the States against the deceitful
1568 king, went into Germany to his brother John. The leading
A.D. nobles who remained behind—Counts Egmont and Horn—were arrested after three weeks of pretended mildness on the part of Alva. About nine months later, they were both beheaded in the market-place of Brussels, amid the sobs of the despairing citizens.

Alva then let loose the full flood of his revengeful bigotry on the wretched Netherlanders. The land was poisoned with the stench of eighteen thousand decaying corpses. But a change came just when it seemed impossible to bear such oppression longer. A band of the Water Beggars, under the Count of Lumay, who had sworn never to cut or comb his hair until he had revenged his friend Egmont's death, make a dash by sea upon the fortified town of Brille, and took it. Everywhere the Dutch, inspired with new strength, rose and expelled the Spaniards, who could retain their footing only in Middleburg.

During the war that ensued, Frederick, the son of Alva, starved the little garrison of Haerlem into a surrender (1573); and then, enraged at the gallant defense they had made, butchered them without mercy. When the executioners were worn out with their bloody work, he tied the three hundred citizens that remained, back to back, and flung them into the sea. A repulse at Altmaar, and a great defeat sustained at sea, when the Water Beggars, with twenty-four small vessels, beat thirty large Spanish ships, taking seven of them, turned the scale completely against Alva. By similar successes, and the capture of richly-laden merchantmen, the Dutch soon found themselves masters of a fleet of one hundred and fifty sail.

The brutal Alva was then recalled, and Requesens, a milder man, appointed in his stead. Still the war went on, with changing fortune. The Spanish soldiery, who were badly paid, growing mutinous, were led to the siege of Leyden. A circle of sixty-two forts was drawn round the devoted city. It was a terrible time, and the cause of Protestantism was clouding fast. Famine pinched the poor wretches within the walls, and without, the Dutch soldiers had been scattered. In vain the Water Beggars, whose broad-brimmed hats bore a half moon, with the motto, "Better Turkish than Popish," chafed on their decks as they cruised along the low shore. All was despair, until William the Silent ordered the dikes to be cut, and the sea let in on the Spanish works. It was done. The foaming billows rushed over the cornfields. A wind arose, which drove the salt waves into the Spanish trenches, while at the same time it bore the boats of the bold Dutch skippers, piled up with bread and fish, to the walls of the rescued city. Fifteen hundred Spaniards were slain or drowned. The university of Leyden was erected as a memorial of this gallant defense and happy deliverance. 1574 A.D.

The relief of Leyden was a fatal blow to Spanish power in the Netherlands, although Holland was not yet quite free. The exulting people elected William Stadtholder, and Protestantism of the Calvinistic form was re-established in the land. Much to the grief of William, who tried to repress the spirit of revenge, the Reforming party, having now gained

the upper hand, inflicted very cruel persecution upon the few Romanists that remained.

Requesens died suddenly in 1576; and his soldiers, thus left without a leader, and maddened by want of pay, surprised and sacked Antwerp, leaving five thousand citizens dead, and five hundred houses in ashes (November 4, 1576).

At a meeting of the States held about the same time, it was proposed to form a union of most of the Netherland provinces, upon the double condition that religious differences should be arranged, and the Spaniards expelled. This, which was accomplished in November, 1576, is known as the Pacification of Ghent.

Don John of Austria, famous for his great victory over the Turks at Lepanto, in 1571, then came to represent the King of Spain. There was a party among the nobles jealous of the fame of the Silent Prince of Orange, and the liberties of the infant republic seemed in fatal peril, when William, with a wise self-denial which proved him to be a true patriot, refusing to take the head of affairs, gave place to the Archduke Matthias, who was a German prince and a Romanist. The war continued between Don John on the one side, Matthias and Orange on the other. A French duke strove amid the clash of parties to seize the government; but he was driven from the land. The leading soldier on the Spanish side was the young Duke of Parma, who soon reduced to subjection the southern provinces, in which the greatest cities, Ghent especially, were hotbeds of civil strife.

Fortunately for themselves and the cause of Protestantism, there was harmony enough among the northern provinces to make them follow the advice of Elizabeth of England, whose heart and whose aid, when she could give it, had been with them through all the perilous struggle. The famous Union of Utrecht laid the foundation of the Dutch Republic. Seven provinces—Guelderland, Holland, Zealand, Friesland, Utrecht, Overyssel, and Groningen—agreeing to unite their strength as a single state, chose William of Orange to be their Stadtholder.

Jan. 22, 1579 A.D.

Philip's rage was terrific when he heard that these lands, poor, indeed, in natural qualities, but trebly rich in the skill and industry of their sturdy inhabitants, had broken loose from his realms. Setting a price of twenty-five thousand ducats upon William's head, he promised, moreover, to grant nobility to any one who should murder this leader of the rebel Dutch. The base bribe bought a ready hand. A villain named Balthasar Gerard, came to Delft seeking an audience of the Stadtholder. He was courteously received, and honored with a rich gift, yet his heart never melted. Drawing a pistol, he fired, and three balls pierced the body of the Prince. "O God! have mercy upon

July 17, 1584 A.D.

me, and upon this poor nation," were the last words of this great man, whose life, of only fifty-one years, most truly worked out the meaning of his motto, "Calm in the midst of storms." The Spanish war was continued by his son and successor, Maurice, who ruled the Dutch Republic until 1625.

The independence of the seven united provinces, though really won at the Relief of Leyden, and declared by the Union of Utrecht, was not formally acknowledged by Spain until 1609, when a truce for twelve years was made.

A sad and striking contrast was soon manifest between the free provinces of the north, and those provinces of the south which were still pining in the bondage of Spain. In the same year that saw the murder of Orange, the Duke of Parma got complete possession of Ghent. There, having first shut the schools and stopped the printing-presses, he planted a colony of Jesuits. There was no surer way of strangling liberty; and while free Holland bloomed like a garden, and the docks of Amsterdam bristled with a forest of masts, the cities of the south stood empty, or peopled only with a sluggish few.

The population of Holland soon grew too great, for thither fled numbers of Calvinist refugees, driven from the Belgic provinces, from France and Germany. So thick was the crowd in some places, that many families lived in boats. But here the native enterprise found a speedy remedy. The Bremstersee was drained; and the wonderful *Water Staat*, or system of canals and dykes, was wrought out over all the land. The ships of the Water-Beggars, which had done such gallant service in the war of independence, manned with their hardy crews, were ready for sea on more peaceful errands; and before many summers had shone on the young republic, the Dutch flag was flying in every sea, and the merchandise of all the world, from the spices of Java and the tea of China to the cod-fish and whale oil of North American waters, filled the giant warehouses on the banks of the Y.

RULERS OF HOLLAND.

	A.D.
William of Nassau, first Stadtholder	1579
Prince Maurice of Nassau	1587
Frederick Henry of Orange	1625
William II. of Orange	1647
The States suppress the office of Stadtholder	1650
William III. of Orange	1672
States in power again	1702
William IV. (Office of Stadtholder made hereditary in the House of Orange)	1747
William VI. of Orange	1751

Netherlands united to French Republic..... 1795
WILLIAM FREDERICK..... 1806
LOUIS BONAPARTE, King of Holland..... 1806
Holland again united to France..... 1810
WILLIAM FREDERICK, Prince of Orange, first King of the Netherlands..... 1815
WILLIAM II. second king of Holland..... 1840
WILLIAM III. third king..... 1849

CHAPTER IV.

THE HUGUENOTS.

Central Point: THE MASSACRE OF ST. BARTHOLOMEW, August 24, 1572 A.D.

The name Huguenot—Henry II.—Bourbons *versus* Guises—Francis II.—Massacre of Vassy—Battle of Dreux—Murder of Guise—Reverses of the Huguenots—Peace of St. Germain—St. Bartholomew's Day—Deathbed of Charles IX.—The Catholic League—Henry IV.—Struggle with the League—Battle of Ivry—Henry's abjuration—Edict of Nantes—France under Henry IV.

THE French Reformation began in the reign of Francis I., to whom, as a peace-offering, John Calvin dedicated his "Christian Institutes." Amid his ceaseless wars with the Emperor Charles, this knightly monarch did not forget to fight the battle of Mother Church. He doomed to the stake crowds of Huguenots, as the French Protestants now began to be called, probably from a German word, *Eignots*, meaning sworn confederates, and applied to a party in Geneva.*

During the reign of Henry II. (1547–1559) the fires of persecution continued to blaze, the queen, Catherine de Medici, who was destined afterwards to brand her name deeply on a terrible page of French history, rejoicing in the glare. This king, holding a Bed of Justice,

1558 A.D. issued an edict to establish the Inquisition in France; and the students of Paris, who used to gather in the "*Pré aux Clercs*," now a part of the Faubourg Saint Germain, to sing psalms in the still summer twilight, were denounced as guilty of sedition.

A political element, now beginning to weave itself into the battle between the creeds, gave a peculiar bitterness to the strife. The great family of Bourbon, descended from Robert, the fifth son of Louis IX., were the rivals and foes of the princes of Lorraine, who are known as

* Other derivations of this word are from Hugon's tower at Tours, where the Protestants often met; and from the first words of their petitions, "*Huc nos venimus.*"

the Guises. We therefore do not wonder to find the leaders of these great factions ranged on opposite sides in the religious contest. Anthony of Bourbon, who was King of Navarre through his wife, though afterward a renegade, became at first a leader of the Protestants. His brother Louis, Prince of Condé, took the same side. Marshalled against them were the queen, the Duke of Guise, the Cardinal of Lorraine, and the Constable Montmorency. The death of Henry II., from a wound in the eye accidentally inflicted at a tournament, saved him from the worse shame that haunts the memory of his son (1559).

Francis II., the husband of Mary, Queen of Scots, then becoming king, fell so completely into the hands of the Guises, who were the uncles of his wife, that the conspiracy of Amboise was formed by Condé and others, to crush the haughty clique. But the attempt was drowned in blood, the Prince of Condé narrowly escaping the vengeance of the Guises. The death of young Francis, in 1560, left the throne to his brother, Charles IX.

The queen-mother then became the ruling spirit of France, for she had unbounded influence over the mind of Charles, who was a boy of only ten. Every day grew darker to the Huguenots. Guise, Montmorency, and Saint André, three leading nobles of France, formed a triumvirate to root out the so-called heresy. Hope, indeed, seemed to brighten, when the edict of July, 1561, freeing the Huguenots from the punishment of death, was followed by the edict of January, 1562, giving them leave to meet unarmed for worship outside of the towns. But the murmurs of the Romish party grew deep, and a massacre of Huguenots at Vassy by the followers of Guise, acting as the first taste of blood to the tiger, let loose a host of butchers upon the unhappy Protestants. Loire and Seine, Garonne and Somme ran red with Huguenot blood.

War then broke out. The Prince of Condé headed the Huguenots, and not less distinguished in the cause of truth and freedom was Gaspard Chatillon, better known as Admiral Coligny. Condé seized Orleans, which became the head-quarters of his party, and from this centre the Huguenot influence spread far and wide. Elizabeth of England, receiving Havre as a gift, sent them six thousand troops, while the alliance of Spain gave weight to their Romish foes.

The first great battle was fought at Dreux, forty-five miles from Paris. For seven hours the strife raged; and just as the capture of the Constable Montmorency seemed to make the victory of the Protestants sure, up came the fresh troops of Guise, beat back the exulting Huguenots, and took Condé prisoner. That night the vanquished prince shared the bed of his captor. **1562** A.D.

Orleans was at once besieged by Guise, and the hopes of the Huguenots were sinking low, when the assassination of the duke, who was shot in

the dusk of the evening from behind a tree by a young Protestant named Poltrot, saved the stronghold and broke up the triumvirate.

It is wonderful what life there is in truth. The defeat of the Protestants at Dreux was only the first in a series of similar repulses, suffered during the eight following years. And yet the cause still lived; for every champion who bled on the battle-field, or shrivelled up amid blazing fagots, tens and hundreds arising with swords as sharp, and hearts as meekly brave. The Romanists triumphed in 1567 at St. Denis; but the death of Constable Montmorency, who was shot by a pistol-bullet, cast a gloom over their rejoicings. In 1569 the Huguenots were defeated at Jarnac, and their great leader, Condé, was slain. Their attempt upon Poictiers, which was then the second town in France, was foiled by the valor of the young Duke of Guise; and a month or two later they were beaten at Montcontour in spite of the bravery of Coligny, who escaped with difficulty, bleeding from many wounds. The young King of Navarre, a boy of sixteen, and the young Prince of Condé were already, under the guardianship of Coligny, numbered amid the Huguenot leaders.

After a winter spent in the south, Coligny, nothing daunted, collected a new army, and reinforced by some German troops, was marching upon Paris, when a peace was concluded at St. Germain en Laye, in terms most favorable to the Huguenots. They were to be pardoned for taking up arms; their forfeited property was to be restored; they were declared eligible to most public offices; and they were to hold four towns, Rochelle among the number, for two years, as security for the fulfillment of the treaty.

1570 A.D.

But already dark shadows had begun to fall upon the Protestants of France. Five years ago Catherine de Medici had met the infamous Duke of Alva at Bayonne, and such a meeting boded no good to the cause of the Reformation, either in Flanders or in France. The terms of the treaty of St. Germain were too sweet to be sincere. But the favor of King Charles seemed to go further still; for, in order to cement the union of the rival parties, he proposed a marriage between the young king of Navarre and his own sister Margaret. "Ah!" said a wary noble of the time, "if it takes place at Paris, the wedding favors will be crimson."

Coligny, Condé, and the leading Huguenots went to Paris to the wedding, which took place on the 18th of August, 1572. Four days later, as the admiral was walking slowly on his way from the Louvre, reading some papers, he was fired at from a window by a man, Maureval, known as the "king's assassin." A ball struck each arm. The king, though secretly enraged that the murderer had missed his aim, paid Coligny a visit of pretended friendship. Meanwhile a horrible plot, of which Catherine de Medici was the life and soul, was darkening to its fatal crisis. The wretched,

irresolute king trembled at the prospect of the fearful crime ; but neither pity nor fear could pierce the granite heart of his mother. At midnight bands of armed men mustered according to orders at the Hotel de Ville. A church bell rang ; a single pistol-shot was heard ; and the work of blood began.

It was then two o'clock on Sunday morning—St. Bartholomew's day—the 24th of August, 1572. The first victim was the gray-haired Coligny, whose lodging was broken into by the retainers of Guise. Guise himself, Aumale, and Angouleme stood in the court-yard below ; and when the corpse of the old man was flung from the window, they were wet with the spirting blood. Shots and screams echoed through the streets, into which the defenseless Huguenots fled half-naked ; and by the glare of torches which were placed in the windows, bands of Romanists, wearing a white cross in their hats, butchered without mercy. The Paris mob went mad with the lust of blood ; one wretched man, a goldsmith, boasted of having killed four hundred persons with his own hand. The Romish nobles rode about in the summer dawn, encouraging the murderers. "Crush the viper blood," yelled the savage Guise. "Bleed, bleed," cried Tavannes ; "doctors say bleeding is as good in August as in May." During the week of the massacre ten thousand were slain in Paris alone ; and, fast as the news reached Rouen, Orleans, Lyons, and other cities, similar tragedies were enacted, seventy thousand Huguenots perishing in the provinces. The King of Navarre and the Prince of Condé escaped only by professing to abandon the Protestant faith. At Rome cannon were fired, and a *Te Deum* sung in honor of the great event ; but to the court of Protestant Elizabeth the news brought fear, and anger, and deepest gloom.

Aug. 24, 1572 A.D.

Notwithstanding this fearful blow, the Huguenots held out bravely in Rochelle, and after a time gained some important concessions. Only eighteen months after the massacre of St. Bartholomew, Charles IX. lay dying, at the early age of twenty-five. His soul was frozen with unutterable horror, as the pale and bloody spectres of that fearful Sunday morning seemed to crowd around his fevered bed. His brother, Henry of Anjou, who had lately been crowned King of Poland, then became King of France ; but so strong was the desire of the Polish nobles to keep him among them, that he was obliged to leave his palace there by stealth.

The reign of this prince, under the title of Henry III., is marked by the establishment of the Catholic League for the extermination of the Huguenots. Already the King of Navarre, having escaped from custody after three years' imprisonment, and having flung to the winds his forced adherence to the Romish creed, was at the head of the Protestants. Condé was with him. War was renewed. The king, who was at first in favor of the League, soon

1576 A.D.

formed a party of his own. The desolating war that followed is called the War of the Three Henrys, for the Leaguers were under Henry of Guise, and the Huguenots under Henry of Navarre. Paris having declared for the Guises, the king caused the duke and his brother, the cardinal, to be assassinated. Then all France rose in flame; and the king had no resource but to throw himself on the help of the Huguenots.

1589 A.D. Aided by Navarre, he undertook the siege of Paris; but at St. Cloud he was stabbed by James Clement, a Dominican monk, who gained admission to the royal quarters. So perished the last king of the princely line of Valois. On the 5th of January in the same year his infamous mother, Catherine de Medici, had already died.

Henry, King of Navarre, who had for twenty years been the acknowledged head of the Huguenots, then became King Henry IV. of France, at the age of thirty-six. He was the first monarch of the great Bourbon line, under whose rule France was destined to see days so glorious and so disastrous. The death of his mother, in 1572, had left him King of Navarre. Two months later, he had married the sister of Charles IX.

His struggle with the League still continued after the crown of France became his. Only half of the kingdom at first acknowledged his sway; and his rival, the Duke of Mayenne, was appointed Lieutenant-General of France by the Parliament of Paris. In the war of four years which ensued, the chief events were the battle of Arques and the still more celebrated fight of Ivry, both resulting in favor of the king. Elizabeth of England aided her royal cousin with men, money, and ammunition.

The battle of Ivry was the crisis of the struggle between the Huguenots and the Leaguers. On a plain near the Eure the two armies lay under torrents of rain during the night before the conflict. The king had eight thousand foot and more than two thousand horse; Mayenne had twelve thousand foot and four thousand horse. A cannonade began the battle; but the cavalry did the real work of the day. Never was the dashing valor of King Henry more conspicuous than on this eventful day. Before the onset, riding out in front of his men "all in his armor dressed," with stirring words he had bidden them follow the snowy plumes with which his helmet was adorned. There was one anxious quarter of an hour, when the dust of a sweeping charge hid this guiding star from the straining eyes of the Huguenot soldiery; but when the white gleamed out again, and their king, breathless, bloody, and soiled with battle-dust rode safe out of the *mêlée*, a cheer arose which struck panic into the army of the League. Mayenne fled across the Eure; and scarcely four thousand of his fine force escaped

Mar. 14, 1590 A.D.

death or capture. Count Egmont, a Spanish officer, was among the slain.

Henry then laid siege to Paris; but the advance of a Spanish force, under the Duke of Parma, obliged him to abandon the undertaking. Negotiations began between the king and the members of the League, who were gaining no ground in the strife. And then took place that remarkable event, which stamps Henry as a worldly-wise politician, sadly at the expense of his character as a man of true religious feeling. "The perilous leap"—so he himself called it—was taken in 1593, when, acting by the advice of his celebrated minister, Rosni, Duke of Sully, and desirous to end the distractions which had torn France for so many years, he abjured the Protestant faith. All the Romanists, except the extreme bigots, were overjoyed; town after town opened its gates to him; foe after foe laid down the sword, until in 1598 he ruled in peace over all France.

Though he had ceased to be a Protestant, he had not ceased to care for the cause. Five years after his abjuration, in the face of an opposing Parliament, he signed the famous Edict of Nantes, which gave freedom of conscience to the Protestants, declared them eligible to all offices, and permitted the public exercise of their worship in certain parts of the kingdom. In the following month a treaty between France and Spain was concluded at Vervins, much to the advantage of the former nation. Thus Henry gained his earnest wish—peace at home and abroad.

Apr. 30, 1598 A.D.

His twelve remaining years were spent in constant efforts to make France a land of plenty. "The poorest peasant in my realm," said he, "shall eat meat every day in the week, and have a fowl for the pot on Sunday." He gave to Sully the task of arranging the money matters of the State, which had fallen into such a miserable condition, that only one-fifth of the taxes exacted from the people reached the royal treasury. The remaining four-fifths stuck to the fingers of the robbers, worse than the publicans of old, who were entrusted with the collection. But by Sully's skill and the strict economy of the court, where the plain gray cloth of the king's dress and the simple dishes of his table left the nobles no excuse for luxury, debts to the amount of one hundred and thirty-five millions of livres were paid off; the king's revenue was increased by four millions; and thirty-five millions gathered in the treasury; and all this, while the mason's chisel and the hammer of the ship-builder were ringing and clattering without rest in every town and dock-yard. New and splendid buildings decked the streets of Paris. Churches, bridges, hospitals, forts, and ships grew up everywhere. Schools were endowed, libraries were filled, and men of learning were rewarded. Grotius, Scaliger, Casaubon,

and De Thou were among those in whose society the king often enjoyed his leisure.

So reigned Henri Quatre, of all monarchs still the dearest to the French heart, until the dagger of Ravaillac, a mad Jesuit, slew him one day while his carriage was blocked up in a narrow street. His son Louis, the eldest of three children by Mary de Medici, his second wife, succeeded him with the title of Louis XIII.

May 14, 1610 A.D.

FRENCH KINGS OF THE HOUSE OF VALOIS.

	A.D.
Philip VI. (de Valois)	1328
John II. (the Good)	1350
Charles V. (the Wise)	1364
Charles VI. (the Beloved)	1380
Charles VII. (the Victorious)	1422
Louis XI.	1461
Charles VIII. (the Affable)	1483
Louis XII.	1498
Francis I.	1515
Henry II.	1547
Francis II. (husband of Mary Stuart)	1559
Charles IX.	1560
Henry III. (King of Poland)	1574–89

CHAPTER V.

CARDINAL RICHELIEU.

Central Point: THE SIEGE AND CAPTURE OF LA ROCHELLE, 1628 A.D.

Regency of Mary de Medici—Her favorite Concini—Misgovernment—Louis XIII.—His favorite De Luynes—Rise of Richelieu—His three aims—He tames the nobles—Curbs the Parliament—Revival of Huguenot power—Buckingham at Rhé—Taking of Rochelle—Huguenots subdued—Glory of Richelieu—His death—His character—Death of Louis XIII.

A miserable chaos followed the wise rule of Henri Quatre of France. Louis XIII., being only nine years of age, his mother, Mary de Medici, was made regent; and under her weak government a total change took place. Sully, whose wisdom was set at nought, resigned, and left the court. Concini, an Italian, and his wife, having gained ascendency over Mary's mind, guided the affairs of the State as they pleased. A close alliance was formed with the pope and the court of Madrid. The nobles, with Condé at their head, rose in arms, enraged at the favor shown to foreigners. All over the land the laws were utterly despised.

But Louis was growing up; and in 1617 Concini was arrested and shot, and soon after his wife was beheaded. The queen-regent was driven into exile at Blois, where she lived, until, two years later, she was released by the rebellious nobles under D'Epernon. These steps were taken by the advice of Albert de Luynes. the falconer of young Louis, who, finding means to slip into the dead favorite's place, rose to be Constable of France. This new minion was more bitterly hated by the nobles than his predecessor had ever been.

Out of this confusion and crime there arose one who, with all his faults, ranks first man of his age. Born of noble parents at Paris in 1585, and educated at the College of Navarre, young Armand Jean Du Plessis, though at first intended for a soldier, was consecrated Bishop of Luçon in his elder brother's place, at the early age of twenty-two. Chosen in 1614 to represent the clergy of Poitou in the assembly of the States General, this clever young priest created so great a sensation by a speech which he delivered before the king, that the queen-regent made him her almoner. This was the turning-point in his career. Thrown henceforward into the wild turmoil of restless court intrigue, with cool head and resolute heart he won step after step in the perilous struggle. While the star of Concini was in the ascendant, he was made Secretary of State. In 1622 he wore for the first time the red hat of a cardinal; and, two years later, the influence of Mary de Medici having gained for him a seat in the Council, his eloquence and deep political wisdom raised him to the proud position of first Minister of France. Such was the rise of the great and ruthless Cardinal Richelieu, of whom Montesquieu says: "He made his master the second man in the monarchy of France, but the first in Europe; he degraded the king, but he made the reign illustrious."

The writer just quoted gives the essence of the great French statesman's policy in a few striking words: "He humbled the nobility, the Huguenots, and the house of Austria; but he also encouraged literature and the arts, and promoted commerce, which had been ruined by two centuries of civil war. He freed France from a state of anarchy, but he established in its place a pure despotism." The first two of Richelieu's three great achievements claim our notice now. His successful schemes against the house of Austria will, in the next chapter, appear as part of the story of the Thirty Years War.

Bitterest of Richelieu's political foes were the restless Mary de Medici and her son, Gaston d'Orleans, who could not tamely see their influence over the king's mind swept away by the subtle cardinal. But so it was—let them bear it how they might—and so it continued to be. Their hold upon the king was loosened for ever; and, spell-bound by the genius of his minister, whom he never really liked, Louis saw with no regret his

mother and his brother Gaston banished from the realm. In vain Gaston, plotting against his foe, called his friends to arms. The Dukes of Guise, Soubise, and Vendome were forced to flee into exile. Marshal Bassompierre was thrown into the Bastile. Marillac, Montmorency, Cinq-Mars, De Thou, and many others were put to death. Not without fierce resistance did those terrible blows fall; but the unerring craft of the priestly statesman was too much for the nobles—many, and rich, and unscrupulously wicked though they were. Plot after plot sprang up; but the iron hand of the cardinal calmly, yet very mercilessly, struck them all down. The parliament too, and the Court of Aids, by which the money-edicts were registered, felt the power of the haughty minister heavily; many of the members being suspended and banished, because they refused to carry out his views. Thus Richelieu gained his first grand aim. Perhaps the secret of his success lay in the fact that the French people made no move in aid of the nobles or the parliament.

The second aim of his domestic policy was the humiliation of the Huguenots, who, under the protecting shadow of the Edict of Nantes, were beginning to be once more formidable. The spirit of freedom in religious matters, for which this section of the people had been struggling so bravely for nearly a century, could not but influence their political opinions, and make them dangerous enemies of despotism. Now, as the establishment of a despotism in France was the great end of Richelieu's policy, these Huguenots, for whose religious opinions the cold and worldly statesman seems to have cared not a whit, must either bend or break before him. Bend they would not; so, to break their power, he planned the siege of La Rochelle, a seaport on the western coast, which ever since 1557 had been their great stronghold and asylum.

The British court, whose councils were then ruled by that wicked fop, Buckingham, sent aid to the Huguenots. The duke sailed with a large force to La Rochelle in July, 1627; but the citizens, shutting their gates, refused to give entrance to allies of whom they were not sure. Rhé and Oleron lie out in the sea opposite Rochelle. Instead of seizing the latter, which would have been an easy capture, he attacked the former, although it was studded with strong stone forts. Then followed a series of miserable blunders. A small fort guarded the harbor, yet he left it behind him untaken; he allowed French ships to break through his fleet with food for the garrison of St. Martin; he lost week after week doing nothing, and before any breach was made he sent his men to storm the rock-built citadel of the town. They were, of course, beaten back, and had to fight their way to the ships through a French army under Schomberg. Half of the English troops were lost in this ill-fated expedition, and the rest went home with hanging heads

Then Richelieu, exulting in the defeat of the English, on whose aid the Rochellers had mainly relied, went with King Louis XIII. to the camp of the French army, which had already begun to besiege this "proud city of the waters." The cardinal, beneath whose priestly robe a soldier's heart was ever burning, threw himself with all his energy into the working of the siege. The Dukes of Soubise and Rohan, now the leaders of the Huguenot party, were not within the walls; but the mayor, Guiton, directed the defense. The king, growing weary, soon went back to Paris. The cardinal stayed behind. Finding that his greatest efforts by land could not take the city so long as the sea was open to the garrison, he tried to shut up the harbor, at first with stakes and then with a boom. Both plans failed, but his resources were not yet exhausted.

Remembering how Alexander the Great had taken Tyre, he began to build up the entrance of the gulf. The Huguenots at first laughed loud when they saw his soldiers, all turned engineers for the nonce, tumbling the rocks into the sea for the foundation of the mole; but when the structure topped the water and began to grow out into the deep, very blank they looked. Still the masonry increased, until a dark mass of cemented rocks half a mile long, closing in the harbor, completed the circle of blockade. Earl Lindesay came with ships from England, but could do nothing to aid the besieged. Famine ground them with its slow and terrible pain, until they had no resource left but to yield up to the triumphant Richelieu the last hope of the Huguenots. The siege had lasted more than twelve months. Of fifteen thousand who had begun the defense, there were then remaining only four thousand wasted spectres.

1628 A.D.

But the work was not yet done. There were towns in France where Protestants still stood armed within stone walls. The Duke of Rohan held out in Languedoc, until the active cardinal taught him that to continue the struggle was a useless waste of strength. Then began negotiations, which ended in the destruction of the political power held by the Huguenots, but left them still free to worship God in their own way, according to the terms of the Edict of Nantes.

So for eighteen years this great minister worked out his schemes of foreign and domestic policy—his strong will triumphant in them all. He left the stamp of his excelling genius, not upon France alone, but on all Europe. In every court his name was spoken with respect. The French Academy and the Palais Royal, then called Palais Cardinal, remain as monuments of his wisdom and his taste. His right-hand man, to whom was intrusted the management of his deepest political intrigues, was Father Joseph, a Capuchin friar, who held the office of almoner to his Eminence.

In the last month of 1642 the cardinal died in his palace at Paris, at the age of fifty-eight, almost with his last breath recommending to the king the Italian, Mazarin, as his successor.

The good of France may have been, as we are told it was, this priest's ruling passion; but certain it is, that while he worked for France, he never for a moment forgot Richelieu. That his genius as a statesman was magnificent is beyond question. The very grandeur of his success lies in the fact that he could reconcile two aims seemingly opposite—his own glory and his country's good—which have often clashed in meaner hands. His vanity led him to think himself a universal genius. Not content to be known as a statesman of surpassing brilliance, and a respectable writer of sermons and despatches, he aimed at the fame of a poet and a wit, and wrote some very middling plays. He seems to have had a passion for work. He never swerved from the end he had in view. Crafty, pitiless and cold, he crushed rudely down the gentler feelings of our human nature; and woe to the man or woman who dared to cross his path as he climbed the steeps of power.

The king, Louis XIII., who had been a mere puppet in the hands of his great minister, died five months later, leaving a son, Louis, who was then only four years old. The queen-mother, Anne of Austria, assumed the government as regent, with Mazarin for her prime minister.

CHAPTER VI.

THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

Central Point: THE BATTLE OF LUTZEN, 1632, A.D.

Battle of the Reformation—Ferdinand, King of Bohemia.—Frederic elected king—The Union and the League—Bohemia invaded—Count Mansfeldt—Wallenstein—Defeats Christian IV.—Fails at Stralsund—His dismissal—His life at Prague—Gustavus Adolphus—Lands at Rugen—Sack of Magdeburg—Battle of Leipsic—Gustavus on the Rhine—Death of Tilly—Wallenstein recalled—Battle of Lutzen—Oxenstiern—France in the field—Peace of Westphalia—Wretched state of Germany.

CHARLES V. was succeeded in the empire of Germany by his brother Ferdinand, after whom reigned in succession Maximilian II., Rodolph II., and Matthias.

Ever since the Reformation Europe had been split into two parties—Protestants and Romanists—and the conflict, at first waged only with tongue and pen, had in later days been often maintained with the cannon and the sword. Early in the seventeenth century, when Matthias had held the imperial throne for six years, the last grand struggle began—the

great Thirty Years' War, which enlisted on one side or the other all the chief powers in Europe.

The war opened on a small scale in a contest for the throne of Bohemia, to which the Emperor Matthias had managed to raise his cousin Ferdinand, Duke of Styria. This man, who was a bitter enemy of Protestantism, was looked on with alarm and dislike by a great mass of the people of that land, which had cradled John Huss and Jerome of Prague. And good cause the Bohemians soon found for their alarm. Putting into practice that craft which he had learned in the schools of the Jesuits, he rested not until, in town after town of the whole country, the Protestant service was repressed. This was not to be tamely borne. The Bohemian Protestants, rising in arms, marched to the very walls of Vienna. **1618** A.D.

When Matthias died, in 1619, Ferdinand was elected emperor. But almost in the same hour he heard that the Bohemians, disgusted with the spirit of his entire government, and specially enraged at a secret family compact, by which he had bequeathed their crown to Spain if he died without male heirs, had with prayers and many tears chosen for their king the Elector Palatine, a leader among the Protestants of Germany. So the struggle for a crown between Protestant Frederic and Romish Ferdinand was the outbreak of a wider war, of which the first year's fighting had been confined within the curve of the Bohemian mountains and the Danube.

Already there existed in Europe two great antagonistic confederacies—the Evangelical Union of Protestants, and the Catholic League, which was supported by the Romish powers. The League naturally sided with Ferdinand, and the Union with Frederic. The former depended chiefly on Spain; the latter looked for aid to England, the Dutch Republic, and all the Protestant princes of Germany.

The march of fifty thousand Romanist troops under Maximilian, Duke of Bavaria, into the Bohemian territory, took Frederic somewhat by surprise. A battle was fought at the White Mountain, near Prague, in which the elector was defeated and forced to flee by night from the city, leaving his crown behind him. Twenty-seven of the leading Protestants were sent to the scaffold, and thousands were driven into exile. Ferdinand tore to pieces with his own hand the "letter of majesty," a document by which Rodolph II. had been forced to grant a certain degree of religious freedom to the Bohemians. The beaten elector and would-be king fled to Brandenburg and thence to Holland. **1620** A.D.

The electors of Brandenburg and Saxony both stood aloof from their fellow-elector—the one afraid of Austria, the other cautious, selfish, and

watchful of his own position. But there was a Bohemian soldier, Count Mansfeldt, who still dared to lift the sword against the generals of Ferdinand. Frederic came back with reviving hopes, for Mansfeldt was at the head of twenty thousand men. The Bavarian general, Tilly, proving more than a match for the elector and his friends, drove him to take refuge once more in Holland.

The kings of northern Europe were then greater men than are their descendants of the present day. Christian IV. of Denmark and Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, who were both powerful princes, contended for the honor of leading the Protestant armies. The Swede was the Protestant hero of this great war; but the time had not yet come for his appearance on the changeful scene. The King of Denmark, nearer the battle-ground, and anxious to be beforehand with his royal neighbor and rival, took the field with a great army, as the leader of the Union and the champion of the Protestant cause.

Meanwhile, the hero of the other side had arisen. When the Emperor Ferdinand was at his wit's end for men and money to meet this new confederacy, Albert, Count Wallenstein, a rich and distinguished Bohemian officer, proposed to raise an army at his own expense, saying that when once in the field they could easily support and pay themselves by plunder. The emperor accepted the proposal, and in a short time Wallenstein, at the head of a motley force of thirty thousand men, moved to the Elbe. The Danish war did not then last long. Christian IV. was defeated by Tilly at Lutter in Hanover; and in the following year Wallenstein, whose rapid marches with a gigantic host, now swelled to one hundred thousand men, are the wonder of historians, drove him out of Germany, and, seizing all the peninsula of Denmark except one fort, shut him up in his islands. We are told that the great freebooter, raging that he had no ships to cross the Belt, bombarded the sea with red-hot shot—a pitiful caricature of Xerxes' folly at the Hellespont. For his great service Wallenstein was rewarded with the duchies of Mecklenburg, and he also assumed the title of Generalissimo of the Emperor by land and sea.

1626 A.D.

The next step in his plan of action was to secure the command of the Baltic; and for this purpose he laid siege to Stralsund, a strong fort on the narrow strait which separates the island of Rugen from the mainland. His want of ships prevented him from blocking up the harbor, so that, when the Danish garrison was weakened by repeated assaults on the land side, reinforcements from Sweden found a ready entrance by sea, and defended the town until Wallenstein had to abandon the hopeless siege. This repulse led the emperor to treat with Christian, who, by the inglorious peace of Lubeck, agreed to lay down the sword he had so feebly wielded.

1629 A.D.

It has been already said that the great aim of Richelieu's foreign policy was the humiliation of the House of Austria. In 1629 he found himself free for the accomplishment of this design, since the two leading objects of his domestic government had been attained. He had broken the power of the Huguenots at Rochelle, and he had tamed with iron hand the haughty noblesse of France. Already he had been deep in political intrigues against Ferdinand, and now, by the aid of his trusty Father Joseph, he gave a new turn to the war. Wallenstein, who had wrung million after million of dollars from the indignant Germans, was hated by them all for his arrogance and extortion. Foremost among a clamorous, complaining crowd was Maximilian of Bavaria, who found himself quite thrown into the shade by the victorious brigand. The emissary of Richelieu, making a handle of the emperor's desire to please the German princes, artfully persuaded him to dismiss Wallenstein. Obeying without a murmur, though he was then at the head of one hundred thousand troops flushed with victory, the Bohemian soldier retired to Prague, where he lived with more than royal magnificence.

Schiller gives us a strange picture of his darling hero during this time of eclipse. A tall, thin, yellow-faced man, with short red hair, small glittering eyes, and a dark, forbidding brow, sat silent within a palace of silent splendor. The pen seldom left his fingers, for his dispatches still flew over all Europe. The surrounding streets were blocked up, lest the noise of carriage-wheels should reach his ear. There, still and unsmiling, he waited for the time which the golden stars had promised —he was, like most men of his time, a devout believer in astrology— when he should be once more called to play a great part in history.

The crafty Richelieu, having thus weakened the cause of Ferdinand rested not until he saw the Protestant armies marshalled by the greatest soldier of the age, Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, who had indeed been long desirous of measuring his strength with the emperor. There is, in all the range of history, no character finer than that of Gustavus, the hero of this war. Brave himself, he kindled like fire of courage in his soldiers' hearts; religious himself, he took care that, morning and evening, every regiment gathered round its chaplain in a ring for prayer; severe upon sin, yet ever tempering justice with mercy, he was at once loved and feared by his subjects and his soldiers.

On the 20th of May, 1630, Gustavus, having assembled the States at Stockholm, took in his arms his little Christina, only four years old, and showed her to his people as their future sovereign. His farewell was uttered with broken voice, and heard with many tears. A month later, he landed on the island of Rugen in Pomerania with fifteen thousand men. At first all that was done

June 24, 1630 A.D.

in Vienna was to sneer at the *Snow King*, who, as the wits said, would surely melt as he marched southward. But when this same *Snow King*, seizing Stettin, overran all Pomerania, it was time to act. Tilly was made General-in-chief of the Austrian armies. Still the career of the victorious Swedes went on.

Strengthened by an alliance with France, they took Frankfort, and all that Tilly could do in revenge was to wreak his rage upon the helpless population of Magdeburg. This town, which was then a great Protestant stronghold, stands on the Elbe. Enraged at the gallant defense of the place, this ugly, big-whiskered dwarf, whose green doublet and little cocked hat, with a red feather hanging down his back, must have made him cut a rather remarkable figure, let slip his dogs of war upon the city, which he took by storm, before the Swedes could come to its relief. The horrors of the sack of Magdeburg are unspeakable. Beautiful girls and wrinkled grand-dames, strong men and helpless infants were shot and stabbed and thrown for amusement into the flames of the burning streets. The pavement was slippery with the blood of thirty thousand dead.

Gustavus Adolphus, forcing the selfish Elector of Saxony to join him, marched upon Leipsic, which had opened its gates to Tilly; and then there was a great battle, which secured the freedom of Germany. Tilly, without much difficulty, routed the Saxons, who fought apart from the Swedes. Seven times Pappenheim, the leader of the Austrian cavalry, dashed with his heavy cuirassiers upon the lines of Swedish blue-coats; but every time the sweeping wave recoiled in broken foam. Having thus repulsed Pappenheim, the royal Swede attacked the troops of Tilly, who had broken the Saxon wing, and seizing the heights where their cannon were planted, he turned their own guns upon them. This decided the day. Tilly fled, bleeding and defeated; and Gustavus knelt among the slain and wounded to thank God for his victory. Seven thousand of the Austrian army lay dead. Their camp, all their cannon, and more than a hundred colors fell into the hands of the victors.

Sept. 7, 1631 A.D.

Gustavus, then penetrating central Germany, took Frankfort on his way, and crossed the Rhine to besiege Metz. The Spanish troops, who held this town, surrendered on the fourth day. The Swedish king thus gained the command of the Rhine, much to the alarm of Louis XIII., and even of Richelieu, who thought that the royal victor would surely push on to join the Huguenots, and overturn the Romish faith in France. But soon, turning southeast, Gustavus pressed on to the Lech, a tributary of the Danube. Tilly, having broken down all the bridges, defended the passage of the stream until he was mortally wounded by a cannon-ball, which shattered his leg. Then, breaking up his camp, he retreated to die. The

Swedes, at once over-running Bavaria, entered Munich in triumph. Already their Saxon allies were masters of Prague.

Ferdinand had then no resource but to recall Wallenstein, who, when he heard of these brilliant victories won by Gustavus, knew with secret joy that his star was rising once more. Coming forth from his retreat, by the magic of his name and his splendid promises he raised in three months a fine force of forty thousand men. But of these he would accept the command only on condition that he should hold unlimited power over all the armies of Austria and Spain, and that no commission or pension should be granted by Ferdinand without his approval. To these demands, insolent and imperious though they were, the distressed emperor was forced to yield.

Wallenstein took the field and drove the Saxons out of Bohemia. Then uniting his forces with those of the Elector Maximilian, he found himself at the head of sixty thousand veteran soldiers—an army much larger than that marching under the banners of Gustavus. The Swede shut himself up in Nuremberg. There for eleven weeks the two armies lay in strongly fortified camps, watching each other, and wasting away with hunger and disease. In vain Gustavus offered battle; and on one occasion he made a furious attack upon the camp of Wallenstein, which, however, was repulsed. At last, weary of doing nothing, both armies broke up their camps, to meet soon upon a memorable battle-field.

Wallenstein moved towards Dresden. Gustavus followed his march with rapid steps. On a plain near Lutzen, a village twelve miles southwest of Leipsic, the imperial general awaited his royal foe. A fog delayed the attack until eleven o'clock. Gustavus went to battle with the music of Luther's noble hymn on his lips. The Swedish infantry took a battery whose guns had galled them severely; but the flying imperialists, rallied by the stern voice of Wallenstein, turned and drove them back in confusion. Gustavus, who had been victorious on the right, galloping like lightning to their aid, rode too near the enemy's lines. A bullet broke his arm, another pierced his back—he fell, riddled with balls, and his riderless horse, dripping with blood, carried the sad news over the field. Nov. 6, 1632 A.D.

The Swedes, roused to fury, grew careless of danger or death. In spite of the cool daring of Wallenstein, whose cloak was torn with many bullets, and the dashing valor of Pappenheim, who was shot to the heart at the head of his dragoons, the troops of the emperor gave way and fled. It was the "crowning mercy" of the Protestant cause; but there was no joy in that victory, for Gustavus Adolphus was dead.

To quote the eloquent words of Schiller—"With the fall of their great leader, it is true, there was reason to apprehend the ruin of his party; but to that Power which governs the world the loss of no single man can

be irreparable. Two great statesmen, Oxenstiern in Germany, and Richelieu in France, took the guidance of the helm of war as it dropped from his hands; destiny pursued its relentless course over his tomb, and the flame of war blazed for sixteen years longer over the ashes of the departed hero."

But with the death of Gustavus nearly all interest fades from the story of the war. At once Oxenstiern, the chancellor and dear friend of the dead king, being then in Germany, hastened to the camp, and was soon chosen head of the Protestant confederacy by an assembly of princes meeting at Heilbronn. The Swedes and Germans still kept the field. Ratisbon was taken by the Protestants; but the war degenerated into a succession of skirmishes, and pitched battles became very rare.

Wallenstein, entering into secret correspondence with the Germans, grew inactive, was deserted by his army, and in February, 1634, being then fifty years of age, was assassinated in the castle of Eger. The murderers were richly rewarded by the emperor.

When the Swedes, who were now fighting, not for the empire of Germany, but for their very existence, suffered a severe defeat at Nördlingen in Suabia (August 1634), Oxenstiern, unable to get money or aid of any sort from the German States, threw his cause upon the compassion of France. Richelieu, whom we have already beheld working behind the scenes, and whose covetous eye had long been fixed on Alsace, as a means of extending the French frontier to the Rhine, gladly obeyed the summons. Two fleets were fitted out, and six French armies took the field. In aid of the Protestants the cardinal undertook to cripple the power of Spain, whose alliance formed the main prop of the emperor's cause. In the Netherlands, in Italy, and in the Valteline his soldiers fought the Spaniards; and on the Rhine, siding with the Swedes and Germans, they met the troops of the emperor.

Ferdinand died in 1637, but the war kindled by his tyranny still desolated Europe. Many gallant leaders rose to fill the place of Gustavus; and of these perhaps the best was Bernard of Weimar, who died of plague in 1639, at Neuburg on the Rhine. Banner and Torstenson, who was once the page of Gustavus, led the Swedish armies towards the close of the war. After the death of Richelieu the French sustained two signal defeats—in 1643 at Düttlingen, and in 1644 at Friburg.

The peace of Westphalia, signed at Munster, closed this eventful war.

1648 A.D. The leading terms of this celebrated treaty, which is looked upon as having laid the groundwork of our modern Europe, were—1. That France should retain Metz, Toul, Verdun, and the whole of Alsace except Strasburg and a few other cities; receiving, instead of these, two fortresses—Breisach and Philippsburg,

which were regarded as the keys of upper Germany. 2. That Holland should be a free state, independent alike of Spain and of the Empire. 3. That the Swiss Cantons should be free. 4. That Sweden, receiving Stralsund, Wismar, and other important posts on the Baltic, should also be paid five millions of dollars, as indemnification for the expenses of the war.

Thus Germany lost forever the free navigation of the Rhine, and many of her most flourishing provinces. The glorious old empire dwindled away to a mere shadow of its former greatness. The leading princes soon made themselves wholly independent; and, if the petty states still clung to their emperor, it was only that he might shelter them from the inroads of their more powerful neighbors. The social condition of Germany after the war was utterly wretched. Scarcely one-third of her old population crouched in the poverty-stricken land, whence art and science seemed to have fled forever, where heaps of ashes marked the site of once busy towns, and where sandy deserts, stretching for leagues, filled the place of golden corn-fields. Even the sturdy German tongue was changed; a host of French, Spanish, and Italian words had invaded and held possession of the land; and a mongrel speech, formed of foreign words tipped with German endings, became the miserable fashion of the day.

SWEDISH SOVEREIGNS AFTER THE UNION OF CALMAR.

	A.D.
Margaret and Eric XIII.	1397
Eric alone	1412
Christopher III.	1441
Charles VIII. (Canuteson)	1448
Interregnum	1470
John II. (I. of Denmark)	1483
Interregnum	1502
Christian II. of Denmark (Nero of the North)	1520
Gustavus Vasa (frees Sweden from Danish yoke)	1523
Eric XIV.	1560
John III.	1568
Sigismund (King of Poland)	1592
Charles IX.	1604
Gustavus Adolphus	1611
Interregnum	1632
Christina	1633

CHAPTER VII.

LIFE IN GERMANY DURING THE AGE OF THE REFORMATION.

Jesuits and Capuchins—Reformed clergy—Coronation splendors—Courts of law—Torture and punishment—Soldiers and arms—The citizens—Their amusements—Their houses—The peasantry—Their taxes—The universities—Rage for alchemy—Witchcraft—Poets and poetry—Other arts.

IMMEDIATELY after the Reformation, Rome strove with all her might to regain her lost ground and prop her tottering Church. Foremost in the counter-work were the Jesuits and the Capuchins. The latter, an offshoot from the old Franciscan order, took their name from the fact that they seceded from the original brotherhood, because they maintained that St. Francis wore a pointed hood or *capuchin*. These two orders divided the land between them.

The Jesuits haunted the cities and towns; the Capuchins, by their jocular sermons, strove to draw the country folk to their services; and both drove a profitable trade in amulets and little pictures of the Virgin and the saints. The wily Jesuits, studying medicine and practising as physicians, gained a power over life of which they made terrible use; for their knowledge of poisonous herbs and minerals often served them at a pinch, when they desired secretly and safely to get rid of some active foe. Some laymen, too, were members of the order; nor were these, who were called short-robed Jesuits, the least useful of the brethren. With deep foresight the Jesuits strove to get the education of the young into their hands. In Germany, however, their influence was feebler than in southern Europe.

The poisonous creeping-plant, springing first in Spanish soil, never throve on the heaths and hills of Germany. There, indeed, a great blow was levelled at its root, when a German named Jansen, in the University of Louvain, in the Spanish Netherlands, denounced the hypocrisy and pride of the Jesuits, demanding instead, humility, piety, and the fear of God (1638). His doctrine, called Jansenism, spread especially in France.

The Church of the Reformation was torn by internal strife, after the death of her great fathers. The Lutherans were opposed to the Calvinists; and these two sections were split into sub-divisions. Country ministers became too often mere hangers-on of the nobility, in whose gift were the village churches; and the condition of these German curates grew even worse than that condition of our English clergy in 1685, of which we read in the brilliant pages of Macaulay. The sermon continued to be the great central power of the Protestant worship; but a crop of controversies about certain mysterious articles of faith, springing up, had well-nigh choked all life in the pulpit. But still the mass of the people held by that German

Bible which their good Luther had translated for them, amid the solitudes of the Wartburg; and all the war of empty words broke harmless at the foot of that great rock of truth.

A sketch of the coronation of the emperor will best convey an idea of the splendor which, soon after the decay of the imperial power, still adorned the imperial court: "The regalia, which were kept at Nuremburg, were brought to Frankfort-on-the-Main. Besides some relics, they consisted of Charlemagne's golden crown, set with rough diamonds; his golden ball, sword, and sceptre; the imperial mantle and robes; the priestly stole and the rings. The election over, a peal of bells ushered in the coronation day; the emperor and all the princes assembled in the Römer, and proceeded thence on horseback to the cathedral, where, mass having been said, the Elector of Mayence rose, as first bishop and arch-chancellor of the empire, and, staff in hand, demanded of the emperor in Latin, 'Are you willing to preserve the Catholic faith?' To which he replied, 'I am willing,' and took the oath on the Gospel. Mayence then asked the electors, 'Whether they recognized the elected as emperor?' To which they with one accord replied, 'Let it be done.'

"The emperor then took his seat, and was anointed by Mayence, whilst Brandenburg held the vessel, and assisted in half disrobing the emperor. When anointed, he was attired in the robes of Charlemagne; and with the crown on his head he mounted the throne, while the hymn of St. Ambrose was chanted by the choir. His first act as emperor was performed by bestowing the honor of knighthood with the sword of Charlemagne, usually on a member of the family of Dalberg of Rhenish Franconia. The emperor headed the procession on foot back to the Römer. Cloths of purple were spread on the way, and afterwards given to the people. The banquet was spread in the Römer. The emperor, and (when there happened to be one) the Roman king, sat alone at a table six feet high; the princes below; the empress on one side, three feet lower than the emperor. The electoral princes performed their offices. Bohemia, the imperial cupbearer, rode to a fountain of wine, and bore the first glass to the emperor; Pfalz rode to an ox roasting whole, and carved the first slice for the emperor; Saxony rode into a heap of oats, and filled a measure for his lord; and, lastly, Brandenburg rode to a fountain, and filled the silver ewer. The wine, ox, oats, and imperial banquet, with all the dishes and vessels, were in conclusion given up to the people."*

There had been in former days in Germany a secret tribunal of strange and terrible power, called *Vehmgericht*. First formed under Engelbert, Archbishop of Cologne, it numbered in the fourteenth century one hundred

* Menzel's History of Germany.

thousand members, all bound together by a solemn oath. No churchman, Jew, woman, or servant was admitted a member, or was liable to the punishment of the court. The meetings of the tribunal were secret, and if sentence of death was passed, the unhappy criminal was found dead some day, with a dagger, marked. S.S.G.G. (stick, stone, grass, *grein*), sticking in his heart. Though this tribunal was now disused, the secresy, which had been necessary to shield the judges from the dagger of revenge, was still retained in the decisions of the law courts. All German law was despised; and the old Roman law, which had never died out, became general. Since the people did not understand this, it became necessary to employ advocates, who soon grew rich, and too often were tempted to lengthen out a case for the sake of larger fees.

Torture, borrowed from Roman days, was now inflicted in Germany to a terrible extent. Every township and court had a chamber of horrors, where the accused—as often innocent as guilty—were racked, thumb-screwed, pricked under the nails, burned with hot lead, oil, or vitriol; and on every one of the fair hills of Germany a wheel and a gallows stood, as ghastly sentinels over the bleaching bones of the wretches they had slain. Some of the punishments were horribly ingenious. At Augsburg, clergymen found guilty of serious crimes, were hung up in iron cages on the church towers to die of hunger, because, by the ecclesiastical laws, the hands of laymen were not allowed to inflict punishment on priestly wrong-doers. And in the White Tower of Cologne a dreadful choice was offered to criminals—either to starve to death, or break their necks in climbing up to the bread which was hung high above their heads.

Germany was affected like the rest of Europe by the change which the invention of gunpowder wrought upon the art of war. Troops of Free Lances, under experienced captains, roved from court to court, serving for pay. These soldiers by profession, caring nothing for the cause of a war, but glad to find it raging, sold themselves for the time to the highest bidder. They were chiefly pikemen and arquebusiers; the former bearing long spears with a hatchet at one end, the latter armed with clumsy guns which were rested on forks. Gustavus Adolphus made many changes in the arms and accoutrements of his soldiers. Taking away the heavy arquebuse, he gave them the lighter musket. The first light artillery was used by him; and those dragoons without armor, carrying carbines, whom Mansfeldt had first introduced, were by him brought to much greater efficiency.

The power of the German cities, which had been very formidable in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, when they were united by the Hanseatic League, began to decline in the age of the Reformation, and during the storms of the Thirty Years' War crumbled nearly altogether away.

Of the Hansa towns, Bremen, Lubeck, and Hamburg were free as of old. Gradually the great towns had fallen into the hands of the princes, and the spirit of government had grown very aristocratic. The breaking up of the Hanseatic League and the consequent decline of German commerce, was one result of the enterprise of the English and Dutch merchants, who now began to draw the traffic of the world into their havens. The fat old burghers had now grown lazy and luxurious, and had little notion of leaving their cans of strong beer, for the manufacture of which northern Germany was then famous, to face the toils and dangers of war, as their ancestors used to do. Enough for them that their fathers had fought and labored for power and wealth; it was theirs to enjoy the ease bought with ancestral sweat and blood.

So the citizens began to ape the court life, and even exceeded it in costly magnificence. This showed itself as well in their dress as in their manner of living. Shoes with long points, wide sleeves, and hose, were sported by the portly burghers to so great an extent, that the clergy began to preach against the ridiculous fashions of the day. And, after the Thirty Years' War, among a host of foreign importations of dress, speech, and manners, we find the poor fat burgomasters covering their heads with long, flowing wigs, in spite of the oozy discomfort which such finery entailed on the fat fops during the hot noondays of a German summer.

The amusements of the citizens, like their feasts and finery, were on a rich, clumsy scale. The Carnival and the fair days called out all the wild fun of the city. The guilds vied with each other in splendid shows and decorations, in which something to eat or drink seemed to be the grand inspiration of the design. Gigantic tuns were built, like that of Heidelberg; enormous loaves and sausages were exhibited, to the intense delight of the well-fed crowds. As the princes had their buffoons and court fools, so each guild had its *Hanswurst* or Jack-pudding. Plays called farces or mummeries, in which the actors wore masks, became a favorite amusement of fair-time.

Still, in the old quarters of German cities we may see the narrow streets, and tall, old, gloomy houses, which tell of the troubled Middle Ages. Even at the period of the Reformation many changes for the better were visible in the streets of the free towns. Schools, libraries, hospitals, poor-houses, and hotels were built by rich citizens, for the benefit of the poor. Fugger, a wealthy merchant of Augsburg, who was honored with the notice of Charles V., built more than a hundred cottages for the poor in the suburb of St. Jacobs. In every city there was still a Jewry, or Jews' quarter, into which they were locked at dusk.

The peasants of eastern and western Germany stood on very different footing. The Sclavonians of the east—Austria, for example—though not

free to leave their lord, had few burdens of taxation to bear; but the boors of Würtemberg and the west generally, while they possessed more personal freedom, were ground to the very dust with taxes and dues of all kinds. From early feudal times it had been the custom for the peasant to pay his rent in grain, flax, fruit, cattle, poultry, or eggs. He also gave, in accordance with a practice called *soccage-service*, his own labor and that of his horses to his lord at stated times.

Year after year, as the reckless nobles grew poorer, these dues became heavier on the villagers; and, if any signs of revolt appeared the screw only got another turn or two. The baron, who had ridden after wild boar and deer day after day over the green crops of his tenantry, came at harvest-time clamoring for the better part of the reaped grain. Every change in the peasant's family,—birth, marriage, or death—every season of the year, every part of his dwelling, or of his little farm, had its own tax; and all must be paid. So bitterly was the German boor oppressed. There were left him but two consolations—his love for the fine legends of his old Fatherland, which were too homely to please the foreign tastes of his degenerate masters; and his unshaken faiths in those truths of the Reformed religion, which, floating over the land like winged seeds, had settled and taken root even in the poorest cottage homes. Ballads, proverbs, and coarse cutting jests were the only way in which the embittered heart of the peasant could speak out.

It would be wrong to omit in this sketch of German life a notice of the German universities. During three hundred years (1348–1648) thirty-five universities were founded in the land. Before the Reformation the Romanist colleges had been ruled by the Franciscans and Dominicans; but after the great change they fell into the hands of the wily Jesuits. The Protestant universities were at first placed under the Reformed clergy, and then under the lawyers and court-counsellors. The students were once divided according to their nations, but after the Hussite war there was a change. The professors were then paid by the state; and the students (hence called *Burschen*) were arranged according to *Bursa*, which were institutions for their support.

Students of older standing treated those who had newly joined the college with great roughness and brutality. A system, resembling the fagging in some of our public schools, was carried to so great an extent, that in 1661 John George II. of Saxony was obliged to prevent the *Pennales* or young students from being robbed by the *Schoristis* or elder ones, who took away the good clothes of the newly-joined boys, compelling the poor creatures, too, to black their shoes and run their errands. Before the Reformation, empty cavilling about words and the splitting of straw in religious and political disputations formed the hollow learning of the schools.

A more healthy tone was given to the universities, when the study of classics began, during the Reformation, to be steadily cultivated, as affording the key to the true interpretation of the Bible. As a natural result of this, eminent critics and grammarians arose during the sixteenth century; and the classical scholars of Germany are still looked to with deep respect by the learned of all lands. Natural philosophy, medicine, and anatomy, began now to receive special attention.

Even the great and learned were infected at this time with the rage for alchemy. The Emperor Rodolph II. is called the prince of alchemists. An elector of Saxony spent his whole life in searching for the philosopher's stone. Men, supposed to have found out the secret, were chased from court to court, or broken on the wheel. The most absurd statements were seriously made and believed. A potter announced his discovery that the bodies of twenty-four Jews burnt to ashes would yield an ounce of gold. The society of the Rosicrucians, founded in Suabia by Valentin Andrea, spread abroad the knowledge of the art and the mystical teachings of the physician Paracelsus. Besides the philosopher's stone, a universal medicine and an elixir of life were eagerly sought for—but these chiefly by physicians. Astrology, too, and fortune-telling from the lines of the hand, were thoroughly believed in, and afforded to many a profitable trade.

The belief in witchcraft, long resisted in Germany during the Middle Ages, sprang suddenly and strongly up in the fifteenth century. Sprenger, a Dominican monk, wrote a book called "The Witch's Hammer," and forthwith all Germany and Switzerland trembled with fear. This man, whose greatest pride was that he had burned one hundred old women, obtained a papal bull against witchcraft.

It was believed that there was a certain ointment, prepared by Satan himself, with which the woman smeared her body, and thus acquired the power of flying up the chimney and away on a broom, a spinning-wheel, a spit, or a cat, to the Blocksberg, where, on *Walpurgis Night* (the first of May), the witches held their great meeting. There, dancing back to back, they worshipped a black goat, which caught fire of itself and was burned to ashes; and these ashes, being carefully gathered, were carried off by the company, to be used in working their magical mischief. The chief ordeal by which an accused victim was tried, consisted in tying each thumb to the opposite toe, and flinging the poor thing into the water, where, if she floated, she was surely a witch. So it was a sorry choice between drowning as a proof of innocence, and burning on suspicion of guilt. The misery and wickedness resulting from this vile superstition cannot be told.

We read of a faithful wife and mother carried out to the stake, her weeping husband and little ones clinging to her side, and there burned without mercy. In 1678 six hundred were doomed at one time by a

bishop, for having, as it was alleged, caused disease among the cattle. So late as 1783, a woman was burned for witchcraft at Glarus in Switzerland. Some merciful men tried to preach against this wretched error, but their voice was drowned in a howl of anger. A priest of Mayence was imprisoned for daring to raise his voice against the superstition, and another was himself denounced as a wizard for so doing.

The old German *Minnesingers*, whose lays were bright with pictures of chivalry, gave place at the close of the fourteenth century to the Mastersingers, who carried on the manufacture of feeble and pompous verses as a profession, under the patronage of the civic guilds. The Mastersingers disappeared after the Reformation, and many fine ballads were then composed by soldiers or travelling students. These became great favorites with the common people, who love Nature in such things all the better when she wears a homespun dress. The best poems of the Reformation age are the satires, which, however, grew very coarse in the sixteenth century. Among dramatic writers the most noted of the time was a friend of Luther, Hans Sachs, the cobbler-bard of Nuremburg. Religion and politics deeply tinged all the stage literature of this age. We find such plays represented as "Luther's Life," "The Peasant War," and "The Calvinistic Post-boy,"—in the last of which a Lutheran writer holds his religious adversaries up to ridicule; and during the Thirty Years' War, dramas, entitled, "A Swedish Treaty," and "Peace-wishing Germany," were publicly performed.

The Reformation was a great blow to German architecture; for many grand Gothic structures—the Cathedral of Cologne and the Minster of Strasburg, for example—were left to stand unfinished. But, where architecture lost ground, other arts advanced. Painting on glass was much improved; engraving, which had been invented about the middle of the fifteenth century, received a great impulse; and a German school of painting was formed, of which Lucas Cranach, Albert Dürer of Nuremberg, and Hans Holbein of Basle were the chief masters. Music, too, especially church music, was cultivated with much success. In 1628 the first German opera, "Daphne," was composed by Schütz, who borrowed his materials from the Italian.

GREAT NAMES OF THE SEVENTH PERIOD.

NICCOLO MACHIAVELLI, born at Florence, 1469—at twenty-nine made Secretary of the "Ten"—employed much in political missions—chief work, "The Prince," a book written to please and guide the Medici, and first published in 1532 at Rome, after his death—wrote also, "Commentary on Livy" and "Short Chronicles" in terza rima—died at Florence, June 22, 1527.

ALBERT DÜRER, born at Nuremberg, 20th May, 1471—a painter and engraver—his masterpiece said to be a drawing of Orpheus—was the first man in Germany who taught the rules of perspective according to mathematical principles—died 1528, in his 58th year.

LUDOVICO ARIOSTO, born near Modena, 8th September, 1474—gained the notice of Cardinal Ippolito by his lyrics—when a boy, wrote a drama—is considered one of the best Italian satirists—his great work, "Orlando Furioso," a chivalric poem, in 46 cantos, describing the madness of the famous knight Orlando: it took ten years to write, and was published at Ferrara in 1516—died 6th June, 1533, in his 59th year.

ANTONIO CORREGGIO, born in 1493 or 94, in the Duchy of Modena—a painter remarkable for his use of light and shade, and his pure, sweet coloring—his pictures, "Notte," "The Penitent Magdalen," "Venus Instructing Cupid," and "Ecce Homo," are very beautiful—died March 5, 1534.

NICOLAUS COPERNICUS, born at Thorn in Prussia, some say 19th January, 1472, others, February 19th, 1473—spent much time in youth at mathematics and painting—struck with the complex nature of the Ptolemaic system, he wrote a work on the "Revolutions of the Heavenly Bodies," in which he fixes the sun as the centre of the system; his theory has been shaped out by Kepler, Galileo, Newton, etc., and freed from many errors—died in 1543.

FRANÇOIS RABELAIS, born in 1483, at Chinon, in Touraine—a monk, then a physician—appointed curé of Meudon—a great humorist—chief work, a satirical romance, of which a giant Gargantua and his son are the heroes—Swift is said to have imitated Rabelais in "Gulliver's Travels"—died in 1553.

M. ANGELO BUONAROTTI, born in Tuscany, 1474—the father of epic painting—also a fine architect, engineer, sculptor, and poet—the chief architect of St. Peter's at Rome—used to study the antique in the gardens of Lorenzo de Medici, who took him to his own house—his greatest existing picture, "The Last Judgment," the work of eight years, finished in 1541—his statues of "Lorenzo" and of "Moses" are magnificent—died February 17, 1563, aged 89.

VECELLIO TITIAN, born in the Venetian State, 1477—fellow-pupil of Giorgione—painted the portraits of doges, popes, and kings—lived at the courts of Charles V. and Philip II.—it was his fallen brush that Charles V. picked up, saying, "Titian is worthy of being served by Cæsar"—among his pictures may be named, "The Tribute Money," "The Martyrdom of San Lorenzo," "Bacchus and Ariadne"—died of plague in 1576, aged 99—the finest colorist that ever lived.

CAMOENS, born at Lisbon or Coimbra, about 1517—the great poet of Portugal—studied at Coimbra—saw service against the Moors—sailed to India—returned a beggar after sixteen years' roving—died in an hospital, 1579—his great poem, "The Lusiad," an epic national picture of Portuguese glory, of which Vasco di Gama is a leading hero, was first printed in 1572.

PAUL VERONESE, born at Verona, about 1532—son of a sculptor—an eminent master of ornamental painting—painted the walls of the ducal palace at Venice—his chief works are there—"The Marriage at Cana," one of his finest, is in the Louvre—died very rich at Venice in 1588.

MICHEL, LORD OF MONTAIGNE, born 1533—son of a noble of Perigord—a judge in the Parliament of Bordeaux, and afterwards mayor of that city—chief work, his "Essais," printed in 1580—tinged with scepticism—died 13th September, 1592, aged 60.

TORQUATO TASSO, born at Sorrento, in 1544—a great Italian poet—studied at Padua—wrote a chivalric poem, "Rinaldo," at eighteen, also many love sonnets—his great poem, "Jerusalem Delivered," is an epic on the great Crusade, published at Parma, complete, in 1581, afterwards at Mantua in 1584—while on a visit to Rome to receive the laurel wreath, he died, 25th April, 1595, aged 51.

EDMUND SPENSER, born 1553—second great English poet—secretary to the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland—lived at Kilcolman, county of Cork—chief work, "The Faerie Queene," an allegorical poem, written in a stanza of nine lines, called the Spenserian—died 1598.

BRAHE TYCHO, born of noble parents at Knudsthorp, in Denmark, 14th December, 1546—the reviver of correct astronomy—remarkable for his invention of instruments, and his numerous works—much favored by Emperor Rodolph II.—died October 24, 1601.

WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE, born 1564—the prince of dramatists—born and died at Stratford-on-Avon—lived chiefly in London—wrote thirty-five plays between 1591 and 1614—wrote also sonnets and tales—died 1616.

CERVANTES (or SAAVEDRA), born at Alcalá de Henares, in Castile, October 9, 1547—famed as the author of the romance "Don Quixote," first published in 1605—wrote also "Journey to Parnassus," a satire on bad poets, and many novels—in early life a soldier—died at Madrid, April 23, 1616, aged 69.

JACQUES-AUGUSTE DE THOU, born at Paris, October 8, 1553—a president of the Parliament of Paris—made royal librarian by Henry IV.—chief work, a Latin history of his own time, from 1544–1607, in 138 books—died at Paris, May 7, 1617—wrote also Latin poems.

FRANCIS BACON, born 1561—Lord Chancellor and Viscount St. Albans

—a great philosopher—wrote ten volumes—chief work, "The Instauration of the Sciences," a union of two books, namely, "The Proficience and Advancement of Learning" (1605), and the "Novum Organum" (1620)—died 1626.

JOHN KEPLER, born at Weil in Würtemberg, 21st December, 1571—studied at Tübingen—a great astronomer—appointed Professor of Astronomy at Gratz in Styria, 1593–94—afterwards principal mathematician to the emperor—great work, his "New Astronomy," containing his book on the motion of Mars—died of fever, November 1630, aged 59.

LOPE DE VEGA, born at Madrid, November 25, 1562—a great Spanish dramatist—at first a soldier—served in the Armada—then a secretary to the Inquisition—then a priest—remarkable for the number of his writings—served as a model to Corneille and others—518 dramas remain from his pen, perhaps twice as many lost—died August 26, 1635, aged 73.

PETER PAUL RUBENS, born at Cologne, 29th June, 1577—greatest painter of the Flemish school—painted the "Descent from the Cross" (Antwerp), and the allegory of "War and Peace" (Nat. Gallery)—patronized by Charles I. of England—died at Antwerp very rich, May 30, 1640, aged 63.

ANTONY VANDYCK, born at Antwerp, March 22, 1599—son of a glass painter—pupil of Rubens—came to England in 1632—celebrated for his portraits—those of Charles I. and Strafford very fine—best historical picture, "The Crucifixion"—died in London, 1641, aged 42.

GALILEO, born at Pisa, February 15, 1564—first to use the telescope much in astronomy—made his first telescope in 1609—discovered mountains in the moon, satellites of Jupiter, Saturn's rings, etc.—great work, "Dialogue on the Ptolemaic and Copernican Systems"—died January 8, 1642, aged 78.

NICHOLAS POUSSIN, born at Andely in Normandy, June 19, 1594—a great painter—among his works are the "Death of Germanicus," the "Taking of Jerusalem," and the "Last Supper"—died at Rome, November 19, 1665, aged 71.

EIGHTH PERIOD.

FROM THE END OF THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR TO THE BEGINNING OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

CHAPTER I.

LOUIS XIV. OF FRANCE.

Central Point: REVOCATION OF THE EDICT OF NANTES, 1685 A.D.

Five great periods—Battle of Rocroi—Les Frondeurs—Battle of St. Antoine—Taking of Dunkirk—Louis seeks the empire—Treaty of the Pyrenees—Death of Mazarin—Colbert—War in Belgium—The Triple Alliance—William of Orange—Spirit of the Dutch—Peace of Nimeguen—Arrogance of Louis—Edict of Nantes revoked—Turks beaten at Vienna—League of Augsburg—Battle of La Hogue—Peace of Ryswick—War of Spanish Succession—The Grand Alliance—Victories of Marlborough—Treaties of Utrecht and Rastadt—Last days of Louis—His character—The regency of Orleans.

THE long reign of Louis XIV., woven as it is into a thousand great events of European history, may best be viewed in five sections:—

1. The administration of Mazarin, extending from the beginning of the reign to the cardinal's death in 1661.
2. From the coming of Louis himself to power, to the treaty of Nimeguen in 1678. This period was occupied chiefly by a war in the Spanish Netherlands.
3. An interval of eleven years, during which the domestic policy of the king is most clearly displayed (1678–89).
4. A second great war, in which William III. of England was the life and soul of a powerful league, formed to check the ambition of Louis. This war broke out in 1689, and was closed by the treaty of Ryswick in 1697.
5. The last period, embracing the great War of the Spanish Succession, which opened in 1701, and was closed by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713. Two years later Louis died.

When in May, 1643, Anne of Austria was left with her little Louis, then not five years old, at the head of French affairs, she placed all her confidence in the Italian priest, Mazarin, whom Richelieu with his dying breath had recommended to Louis XIII. A victory won over the Span-

iards by the young prince of Condé at Rocroi, on the northeast frontier of France, only a few days after the opening of the reign, auguring well for the brilliance of the new era, raised both Mazarin and Condé high in public favor.

Mazarin directed the closing operations of the French armies in the Thirty Years' War; but these were marked by no great events. About the time that the treaty of Westphalia was signed, an insurrection broke out in France. This, which is known as the civil war of the *Fronde* (from the French word for a sling), convulsed the land for six years. The courtiers in mockery called the rebels *Frondeurs* (slingers), because on the first outbreak of the quarrel the *gamins* of the Paris streets were foremost with their slings. **1648** A.D.

The cardinal had many enemies. A strong, discontented party, directed chiefly by Coadjutor Archbishop de Retz, afterwards a cardinal, and the Duchess de Longueville, plotted unceasingly against him. From the highest to the lowest, the women of Paris were deep in the politics of the day, and wielded a remarkable influence over the movements of the nation. On the one side in this civil war were the queen, Mazarin, and the courtiers; on the other, the leading nobles, the parliament, and the citizens of Paris. The disputes between the court and the Parliament of Paris formed the chief cause of the rebellion. One day in August, 1648, several of the most obstinate members of the parliament were arrested and sent into exile. At once the Paris mobs—always inflammable—rising in a blaze of revolt, threw up barricades in the streets. Anne, her royal son, and her pliant minister had soon to bow before the storm. Retiring to St. Germains, they lived a while in poverty so great that they were obliged to pawn the crown-jewels for their daily bread.

Mazarin was declared by the parliament an enemy to the kingdom and the public peace. The Frondeurs had the upper hand, and rose aimlessly over all France, until Condé, siding with the king, scattered the troops of the parliament. The court then returned to Paris, where the mob, veering round with their wonted fickleness, received the cardinal with roars of joy. Condé, whose great military renown cannot blind us to his arrogance and discontent, having deserted the royal cause, was arrested in 1650 at the council-board, along with some of the leading Frondeurs. The rebels again took arms under Turenne, whose name as a soldier was rising fast. Mazarin, obliged to leave France, took refuge in Cologne, where he still wove his crafty schemes, and continued, though far away, to act as pilot of the state. **1649** A.D.

Turenne then joined the court party, and a great battle was fought between him and Condé, in the Faubourg St. Antoine. Young Louis looked on from a hill. All Paris sat waiting the event of the fight, which

raged until the daughter of the Duke of Orleans, a leading Frondeur, firing the cannon of the Bastile upon the royal troops, forced
1652 Turenne to retreat. Thus the Frondeurs won a short-lived tri-
A.D. umph ; but Louis, again dismissing, for a little while, Mazarin, whose stay at Cologne had not been long, won the citizens over to his side. The Fronde war was really over, though its embers smoldered for a year or two longer. De Retz was in prison ; Condé fled to the Spanish armies, with them to draw sword against his country. The parliament submitted ; and in 1653 the triumphant Mazarin became again prime minister of France.

During these miserable years of aimless change and bloodshed, the great English revolution reached its crisis. How different was the picture on each side of the narrow sea ! In England, a great national movement, whose forces were centralized, and whose aims were directed by one master-mind, proceeded steadily towards a fixed purpose. In France, a jumble of petty street fights and broken laws, with leaders changing sides, and no man seeming to know his own mind, except the crafty Italian fox, who, watching the scrambling crowds, bided his own time for a spring.

A war with Spain, growing out of the Thirty Years' War, continued meanwhile. The renegade Condé, fighting under Spanish colors, was opposed by the great Marshal Turenne. The Spanish Netherlands were the scene of war. The genius of Turenne had the best in this struggle ; and, when Mazarin induced Cromwell to throw in the weight
1658 of his great name, and to send his invincible ships and pike-
A.D. men to the aid of France, Dunkirk, the strongest fortress in Flanders, fell before the allied besiegers. According to the treaty, Dunkirk was made over to the English, who received it, no doubt, in the hope that it would prove a second Calais, and once more give England a footing on the Continent. How basely it was sold by our second Charles we all know ; but we of the nineteenth century know, too, that no Calais or Havre or Dunkirk would ever repay Britain for the blood and money it would cost her to keep up a useless power in France or Flanders.

Upon the death of the Emperor Ferdinand III., Mazarin put forth all his energies to gain the imperial throne for his master, Louis. Louis himself, too, was dazzled by the glittering prize ; but neither the gold of the young king, nor the craft of the old priest could prevent
1658 the election of Ferdinand's son, Leopold, King of Hungary
A.D. and Bohemia. Thenceforward there never ceased to rankle in Louis' heart a bitter hatred of the emperor, which, sharpened by his lust of absolute power, was the cause of all his great wars. From that hour he never ceased to assail the power of the House of Austria.

The war between France and Spain was closed by the treaty of the Pyrenees, when Mazarin and his rival in craft, Don Luis de Haro, the Spanish minister, met on the Isle of Pheasants in the Bidassoa. The chief terms of this treaty were, that Louis XIV., should marry the Infanta Maria Theresa; that Condé should be pardoned for his desertion of the French cause; that Roussillon should become a part of France; and that the northern French frontier should be extended to Gravelines. By the same treaty Louis agreed to renounce all claims to the Spanish throne, which might arise from his marriage. This he did both for himself and his descendants. **Nov. 1659 A.D.**

Cardinal Mazarin, whose hold upon the king never loosened to the last, died of gout on the 9th of March, 1661. His avarice was unbounded. In his last days he had, to use Voltaire's words, two-thirds of the national coin in his chests; and the livres, rubies, emeralds, and diamonds, shared by his will among his relatives and friends, seem like the treasures of some fairy-favored prince in the Arabian tales. He was the very prince of dissemblers, supple, sly, and polite. His death left Louis XIV. the most absolute ruler in Christendom. **1661 A.D.**

Louis was then twenty-three. With Colbert as his Minister of Finance, and Louvois as his Minister of War, he began the most splendid period of his reign.

Colbert, who found the state loaded with enormous debts, and the farmers of the revenue pocketing fifty millions a year, set himself to retrieve the desperate state of the finances. A man of method in all things, he knew business well, for his early years had been spent in a counting-house at Lyons. Cutting down the land and income-tax, he greatly increased the taxes on articles of consumption, preferring the indirect method of raising a revenue. Then he steadily encouraged commerce; established colonies; gave an impulse to manufactures; cut the Languedoc Canal; built dockyards at Brest, Rochefort, and Toulon; made Marseilles a free port; bought Dunkirk and Mardyk from Charles II.; and sent French consuls to the chief ports of the Levant. This man of marble and of method, having served his king faithfully for twenty-two years, had the vexation in his last years to see ruinous loans obtained for the ceaseless wars of his royal master. But a source of still deeper grief was the knowledge that the Protestants, whose skill and industry he justly regarded as the great prop of French commerce, were hampered with penal laws, and shut quite out of office. He died in 1683.

On the death of the Spanish king, Philip IV., in 1665, Louis, conscious of his strength, laid claim to the Spanish Netherlands. Wilfully shutting his eyes to the treaty of the Pyrenees, he pointed, in defence of his claim,

to an old law of Brabant, by which, in cases of private property, the daughter of a first marriage sometimes came in before the son of a second. The new King of Spain was a delicate child, and the queen-mother a weak woman. "Why," thought Louis, "may I not seize the golden moment? My friend, De Witt, is ruler of Holland; and there is none to guard Flanders." So, with three great armies, amounting to sixty thousand men, he passed the frontier, and pierced Belgium to the Scheldt. The many towns he took, Lisle among the number, were fortified for him on a new plan by the great military engineer, Vauban.

Europe was startled into action by this sudden success. England, Sweden, and Holland formed the Triple Alliance, of which William of Orange was the chief promoter. Louis then thought it best to wait for a time, until he could undermine and blow to pieces a confederacy so dangerous to his plans. In 1668 he therefore agreed to the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.

But, even while the ink that signed the peace was wet, his heart was charged with war. This audacious little Holland must be crushed. It was a fitting time for the blow, since civil strife between the Orange and De Witt factions had weakened the nation. With ease he bought off the mean Charles II. of England, whose aid was the great hope of the Dutch; and then, gathering a fleet of one hundred sail, and arming one hundred and twenty thousand French soldiers with the bayonet, a new and terrible weapon, he began the war again. The Dutch placed their army, not numbering at the outside fifty thousand, under the command of Orange, who, even at the unripe age of twenty-two, was esteemed for his grave steadiness and silent wisdom.

Early in 1672 the French crossed the Rhine in great force. Louis had with him Turenne and Condé, the greatest captains of the age; and nothing seemed surer than the ruin of the Dutch Republic. Town after town surrendered to the French armies; and William retreated with his little band to the province of Holland. In a few weeks Guelders, Utrecht, and Overyssel lay at the feet of Louis, who, fixing his brilliant court at Utrecht, wasted the precious days in idle splendor.

Meanwhile the sturdy burghers of Amsterdam had caught the spirit of their young captain. Remembering what their forefathers had done in the Spanish war, they opened the sluices, let in the sea, and laid the whole land under water. But the history of this noble struggle is stained with a red crime. John and Cornelius de Witt, strong Republicans, by whose means the Perpetual Edict, abolishing for ever the office of Stadtholder, was passed in 1667, fell victims to the factious rage of the Orange party. They were dragged from prison and torn to pieces by a mob.

The spirit of the Dutch was wonderful. Resolved to cling to the utter

most to the low meadows they had rescued from the ocean—as William strongly put it in his reply to the English ambassador,—"to die in disputing the last ditch," they had still, even if their last standing-place in Europe were cut from beneath their feet, one resource left. The sea was open, and when the worst came, far away beyond its eastern waves, "the Dutch Commonwealth might commence a new and more glorious existence, and might rear, under the Southern Cross, amidst the sugar-canes and nutmeg-trees, the Exchange of a wealthier Amsterdam, and the schools of a more learned Leyden." And, as if the elements were commissioned to preserve this last safeguard for the Dutch, a mighty storm arose, which shattered the French fleet, and prevented new troops from landing.

Gradually aid came from many quarters to revive the hopes of Holland. Peace was made with England. Then William of Orange met the veteran Condé on the bloody field of Seneffe, and, though worsted, extorted from his noble foe the praise of having acted like an old captain in everything, except in venturing his life like a young soldier. **1674** A.D.

At the same time Turenne was fighting successfully on the Rhine, where, with a small force of twenty thousand, he cleared Alsace of a host of German and Austrian invaders. There, early in the next year (1675), while surveying the position of his rival Montecuculi, he was killed by a cannon-ball. A tomb at St. Denis received his body, which there mingles with the dust of the French kings.

After six years of war, during which Louis put forth his full strength in unavailing efforts to break the spirit of the Dutch, a treaty was made at Nimeguen, of which one of the leading terms was, that the French king should keep Franche-Comté and several towns in the southern Netherlands. **1678** A.D.

Between the treaty of Nimeguen and the outbreak of the great war in 1689, there were eleven years of comparative peace, which afford us a clear view of the policy followed by "Le Grand Monarque." So the municipal authorities of Paris had begun to call their king, who, in the new-blown magnificence of the name, squared his elbows and strutted on his red-heeled shoes more majestically than ever. The task of establishing a thorough despotism, begun by Richelieu, and earnestly wrought at by Mazarin, was completed by Louis XIV. The picture of the beardless king of seventeen, flinging himself from his horse after a sharp ride from Vincennes, and striding with heavy boots and whip in hand into the chamber where the Parliament of Paris sat, discussing his edict upon coinage, gives us a glimpse of a will which hardened into iron as the years went by. "I forbid you, M. le President," said the royal stripling, "to discuss *my* edicts."

The key to his whole policy lies in his well-known words, when some one talked of the State. "L'Etat?" said Louis, "c'est moi." It was the sublime of arrogance. Acting upon this principle of selfish centralization, he made Paris the heart of France more truly than it had ever been; and still every throb of the mighty centre is felt from Calais to the Pyrenees. A revolution in Paris decides the destiny of France.

The reign of Louis XIV. is the most brilliant period of French literature. Of this more will be said in a future chapter. Science and art flourished too, but in less degree.

Louis' great blunder as a statesman was his silly treatment of the French Protestants. They had come to be the marrow of the land. They carried on nearly all the manufactures, and numbered among them the most skillful workpeople; yet Louis never looked kindly on them. One right after another was wrested from them, until at last their ministers were forbidden to preach, and their teachers to give instruction, except in reading, writing, and arithmetic. Public offices and professions were shut against them; and they lost even the shelter of the laws. Regiments of dragoons hunted them down; and these barbarous raids—called *dragonnades*—scattered the poor cotters and silk-weavers over all the face of Europe. And to crown this senseless cruelty, the Edict of Nantes was revoked two years after the death of Colbert, who was the best friend the Huguenots had in his day.

1685 A.D.

This was the last drop in their cup of bitterness. Shaking the dust of France for ever from their feet, six hundred thousand carried their brave hearts and skillful hands to other lands, where quiet homes, bright with religious freedom, were the rewards of honest toil. England, Holland, and Germany received the refugees. The virulent hatred which Louis bore towards the Protestants may be traced in a great measure to the influence of Madame de Maintenon, who, at the time of the revocation, filled his dead wife's place. She had been the wife of the buffoon-poet, Scarron. Formerly a Calvinist herself, she hated and would hunt to the death those who clung to the faith she had abjured. Another motive to the persecution of the Protestants was Louis' desire to gratify the bigoted James II. of England.

In the same year, as if to show his utter disregard of Christianity in any form, Louis bitterly insulted and humbled Pope Innocent XI., sending his soldiers even into the sacred city. This example certain later rulers of France have not been slow to follow.

In 1683 an event occurred—a turning-point in European history—in which Louis played a very shabby part. The Turks, mustering in overwhelming force, two hundred thousand strong, marched upon Vienna, from which the Emperor Leopold fled in terror. It was a terrible moment.

Once before had the liberties of Christendom been in similar deadly peril, with the Moslem sabre swung for a fatal blow, which seemed about to cut them forever to the earth. It was ten centuries earlier, on the plain of Tours, when Charles the Hammer saved Europe. Now, too, a deliverer arose. John Sobieski, King of Poland, leading an army of Poles and Germans to the rescue, drove the Turks from their trenches in such headlong rout, that tents, cannon, baggage, even the famous standard of Mahomet, were all left behind. It turned out afterwards that Louis had secretly encouraged the Turks, although in public he had plumed himself greatly on his forbearance in not having fallen upon the distressed emperor in this time of trouble.

The League of Augsburg was formed in 1686, in order to check the overweening ambition of the French king, and thus preserve the balance of power. Formed at first by the princes of the empire, it soon included Spain, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, Savoy, and last, though far from least, England. The great second revolution soon dethroned James II. of England, and placed William of Orange, Louis' mightiest foe, in a position of commanding eminence. That great captain accepted with grave joy the leadership of the league.

Then war opened in 1689. Louis had two armies in Flanders, and sent another into Spain. Then, that there might be a barrier between France and Germany, with fire and sword he turned the fertile Palatinate into a silent, black, blood-stained desert. At the same time he supported the cause of the dethroned James in Ireland—with how little success every reader of English history knows. At first, indeed, the cause of Louis prospered, especially by sea. In 1690, his admiral, Tourville, beat the Dutch and English fleets in a hot action off Beachy Head. His marshals overran Savoy and Flanders; and in 1692 the strong fortress of Namur fell before his troops. But even then there fell on him the heaviest blow he had yet felt.

About four o'clock on a summer morning, Admiral Russell, sailing in the channel with English and Dutch ships, caught sight of the French fleet under Tourville cruising off Cape La Hogue. **May 19, 1692** A.D. They closed at once in action, and through all the hot noonday the cannon roared. Not a French ship would have been saved, had not a fog fallen in the afternoon. As it was, the loss of twenty-three great line-of-battle ships crippled the navy of Louis beyond remedy. And so his great scheme of invading England vanished into thin air.

By land, however, the French arms were still victorious. At Steinkirk and Nerwinde (1693)—the latter a most bloody day—William was beaten by Luxemburg. But William was one of those rare characters whose

defeats are really victories, so many blows of the hammer that but weld and toughen the metal. He bided his time; and the time came at last. When Luxemburg and Louvois died, Louis, with an empty purse and a famine-stricken kingdom, ceased to show himself in his camp. The news of English mortars shelling into ruin the walls of his seaports—Calais, Havre, and Dunkirk—quite sank his failing heart. Then William retook Namur, and Louis was glad to conclude the treaty of Ryswick,

1697 A.D. by which his rival was acknowledged to be the lawful king of England. One great point gained by Louis was his being confirmed in the possession of Strasburg, which he had seized in 1681, and had caused Vauban to surround with huge fortifications. Thus he still held a key to the Rhine.

The marriage of Louis to Maria Theresa of Spain has been already noticed, and we have seen him claiming the Spanish Netherlands through this marriage. We now find him, in 1700, upon the death of Charles II. of Spain, proclaiming, one November morning, at his levee, that his grandson, Philip, Duke of Anjou, was King of Spain. To this prince the dying Charles, indignant at an arrangement for parcelling out the Spanish dominions, which had been proposed by the English king, had already left the throne by will. But the Archduke Charles of Austria, the second son of the emperor by a Spanish princess, came forward as a competitor for the vacant kingship; and the destructive "War of the Spanish Succession" began.

England, Austria, and Holland united in a league called the Grand Alliance, which had for its chief aim the rescue of Spain from

1701 A.D. the Bourbons. Prussia and Denmark also supported the Austrian claimant, who called himself Charles III. The grandson of Louis was known among his friends as Philip V.

The death of William III. of England in 1702 was a heavy blow to the Austrian cause; but of the two captains who rose to fill his place, one, at least, was greater in the field than he—this was John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, so great a soldier, so mean a man; and the other was Prince Eugene of Savoy.

It would be useless and confusing to trace in detail the marchings and counter-marchings, battles, sieges, and surprises of this war of twelve campaigns. Louis had now no marshals like Condé or Turenne. Men, called Villars, Tallard, Marsin, and Villeroi, led his armies, skillfully, no doubt, so far as their skill could go, and with all due attention to the cut-and-dry rules of warfare; but they lacked that original genius for soldiering which nature had given to their foes. Besides, Louis required from them an implicit obedience to his will, which greatly cramped their plans.

In 1702 the Dutch and English ships destroyed a French fleet in the Bay of Vigo, and took many Spanish galleons heaped with American gold. Then came Marlborough's four magnificent victories, which well deserve our notice.

A French and Bavarian army of eighty thousand men, under Tallard and Marsin, lay on a hill above the Danube, between the village of Blenheim and a thick wood. A brook, whose water spread into the swampy plain, ran between them and an allied force of equal numbers, under Marlborough and Eugene. Tallard allowed Marlbor- **Aug. 2,** ough to cross the swamp unopposed; and thus his chance of **1704** victory was gone. Rapidly the English general scattered the A.D. French horse and foot, slaying and seizing nearly forty thousand men. The same year is renowned in the annals of Britain for the taking of Gibraltar from the Spaniards.

At Ramillies, a Belgian village, the second great blow was given. The struggle was now between Marlborough and Villeroi; and the English chief threw his rival's lines into confusion by a feigned attack on the left wing (May 23, 1706).

Oudenarde on the Scheldt was the scene of the third great triumph. There, during a long summer day, Marlborough, with Eugene not far off, beat a part of the great French force under Brunswick and Vendôme so thoroughly, that they all fled next night by five different roads (July 11, 1708). The victors then took Lisle.

Within a league of Mons, which Marlborough and Eugene were besieging in 1709, Marshal Villars intrenched himself strongly, beside the village of Malplaquet. The allied leaders advanced to dislodge him (Sep. 11) and a long and bloody battle was fought, until Villars was wounded, and his second in command, Boufflers, beat a speedy retreat. The capture of Mons followed at once.

Blows like these were irresistible; but besides, the power of the French had been broken in Italy. In Spain alone, notwithstanding the early successes of the Archduke Charles, aided by the splendid talents of the English Earl of Peterborough, the arms of Louis were crowned with victory. The battle of Almanza, won in 1707 by the Duke of Berwick, placed Philip V. on the Spanish throne. Henceforth Charles III. of Spain was nowhere.

Smarting under so many reverses, it is no wonder that Louis longed for peace. A conference, soon broken up, however, was opened in 1710 at Gertruydenberg. The war continued. But the death of the Emperor Joseph in 1711 gave a new turn to affairs. The Archduke Charles succeeded his brother on the imperial throne. Marlborough, already in disgrace at home, was fast sinking deeper in the slough. All

Europe was tired of the deadly war; and so the Peace of Utrecht was signed.

By this treaty England got possession of Gibraltar and Minorca—great keys of the Mediterranean—along with Newfoundland, St. Kitts,
Mar. 31, 1713 A.D. and Hudson's Bay. Philip V. was permitted to hold the Spanish throne, on condition of giving up all claim to the crown of France. The treaty of Rastadt, between Austria and France, which completed the Peace of Utrecht, was signed March 6th, 1714. Austria received Naples, Milan, Sardinia, and Spanish Flanders; while Lisle and French Flanders went to France; the Rhine, too, being fixed as her eastern boundary at Alsace.

The reign of Louis XIV. closed in the following year. For seventy-two winters he had held the sceptre of France; and during fifty-four of these he had centralized all power in himself. Before cutting down the gray-haired monarch, death left his splendid palace lonely. His son, the Dauphin, died in 1711. His grandson, the Duke of Burgundy, died in 1712. None lived but a little child, his great grandson, afterwards Louis XV., to take up the sceptre which was dropping from his withered hand. He died on the 1st of September, 1715, aged seventy-seven.

Louis XIV. received the title of Great from the lips of his flatterers; but history has not endorsed the name. Great in sinful extravagance, great in love of pomp and show, great in selfishness and irreligion, he was perhaps the most remarkable specimen of a royal fool that the world has ever seen. He wore shoes with red heels, four inches high, to lift his little body to the level of average sized men. Strutting about with rolling eyes and out-turned toes, bedizened with rich laces and velvets, diamonds and gold, he strove by his majestic deportment to awe the men and captivate the women of his realm. His example, penetrating all French society, froze the whole land into an artificiality of life and manners so costly, that the nation was beggared by the icy splendor.

Louis XV. being only five years old when his great grandfather died, the government was placed in the hands of Philip, Duke of Orleans, the nephew of the dead king. This prince, whose licentious extravagance was rivalled by that of his worthless minister, the Cardinal DuBois, held the regency for eight years (1715–1723). During this time the
1719 A.D. chief event was the rise and bursting of a great bubble—the Mississippi Company, similar to our own South Sea scheme. It was started and directed by a Scotchman, named John Law. The shares rose to twelve hundred per cent. Then came a panic, a crash, and a scene of wide-spread bankruptcy and ruin. In 1723, Louis XV., then aged thirteen, took the reins of power himself.

SIX FRENCH KINGS OF THE HOUSE OF BOURBON.

	A.D.
HENRY IV. (King of Navarre)	1589
LOUIS XIII. (the Just)	1610
LOUIS XIV. (the Great)	1643
LOUIS XV. (the Well-beloved)	1715
LOUIS XVI.	1774
LOUIS XVII.	1793–95

CHAPTER II.

PETER THE GREAT OF RUSSIA, AND CHARLES XII. OF SWEDEN.

Central Point: BATTLE OF PULTOWA, June 15, 1709 A.D.

Early facts of Russian history—Accession of Peter the Great—His reforms—His first success—His tour among the dockyards—His social reforms—Charles XII. of Sweden—Battle of Narva—Building of St. Petersburg—Charles invades Russia—Battle of Pultowa—War on the Pruth—Charles in Turkey—Peter's second tour—His last exploit—His death—His character by Voltaire.

WE have already seen the foundation of the Russian Empire laid in the ninth century by the Norseman Ruric; the conversion of Wladimir about 986 to the Christianity of the Greek Church; and the extinction of the royal race of Ruric in 1598, in the person of Feodor, last of the Norman czars. That Russia was overrun by the Tartars of Zenghis Khan, and rescued again from their hands during the reign of Ivan III., who ascended the throne in 1462, are the most remarkable facts in this period of seven centuries.

The Russia of our day is the creation, humanly speaking, of Peter the Great, who became sole czar in the year 1689. His father, who had reigned from 1645 to 1676, had been honored with the title of the "Good Alexis."

In 1682, Peter was crowned, along with his half-brother Ivan; but the latter, a poor deformed idiot, was only a name in the state. Having baffled the ambitious schemes of his half-sister Sophia, a bold and beautiful woman, who acted as regent, the young Peter, when only seventeen, seized alone the sceptre, which he was destined to wield so well.

This tall, rough, debauched youth set himself first to reform the army, as the right hand of his power. In this task he was lucky enough to have the aid of two skillful officers, Patrick Gordon, a Scotchman, and Le Fort, a Swiss, who soon filled his ranks with recruits from western Europe. The long cumbrous coat was exchanged for a shorter dress. Hair and beards were cropped close; **1689** A.D.

and the Russian soldiers were soon dressed, armed, and drilled in the European fashion. The navy, too, received much of Peter's attention. We are told that at first he sailed his yachts, built by an old Dutch exile named Brandt, upon a lake near his palace. Then he saw the sea at Archangel, felt the weakness of Russia in having little or no available sea-board, and resolved not to rest until the Black Sea, the Baltic, and the Caspian should be merely lakes in a Russian Empire, upon whose shores Atlantic and Indian waves should wash for thousands of leagues.

Beginning war, therefore, against Turkey, in aid of the Poles, he seized Azof, thus gaining his first success (1696). A plot formed by the Strelitz against his life—they were guards organized by Ivan the Terrible—was met by Peter with singular courage, and punished with barbarous cruelty.

He then began his first tour of Europe. Leaving Gordon with some thousand soldiers to support the old Boyard who acted as regent, he set out for Holland. There, at Saardam, he began to explore the shipping, jumping down into the holds, and running up the rigging, amid the jeers of Dutch sailors and street-loungers, whom he sometimes refreshed himself by thrashing.

But odder still was his settling down in two rooms and a garret as Pieter Timmerman, receiving his wages every Saturday night as a common ship-carpenter, and every day boiling his own pot for dinner. At the same time he picked up rope and sail-making, blacksmith's work, and as much surgery as enabled him to draw teeth and bleed. Then (1698) he went to England, where William III. received him heartily, and made him a present of a fine yacht. But Peter was not happy until he got his darling adze in his hand again. Lord Caermarthen was his attendant while he was in England, and many a night the two sat up together drinking brandy and pepper. But no matter how late he sat, Peter rose at four, to his work. He seldom spent more than a quarter of an hour at his meals. Having seen Deptford, Woolwich, and Chatham, the czar left England for Vienna, to see the soldiers of the emperor, whose dress and discipline were then the model for all Europe. But after an absence of seventeen months alarming news called him home. The Strelitz had rebelled. Peter, hastening to Moscow, found on his arrival there that his faithful Gordon had crushed the revolt. With his own hand the czar beheaded twenty of the wretched guards in one hour ; and all Russia heard the groans of tortured men.

Peter's social reforms then began. Dressing himself in a brown frock coat, he insisted on all Russians, except the priests and the peasants, casting off the long Asiatic national robe. He laid a tax on beards. He changed the titles and lessened the power of the aristocracy. Giving

greater freedom to the Russian women, who had previously been shut up as in a Turkish harem, he got up for their amusement evening parties, lasting from four to ten, at which the Russian gentlemen were required to keep strictly sober. Dancing, chess, and draughts were the chief amusements of the evening. He checked the arrogant clergy by tolerating all sects, except the Jesuits, and giving free circulation to the Sclavonian Bible.

We now turn to the great rival of the czar, Charles XII. of Sweden. Born in 1682, this prince succeeded his father at the age of fifteen (1697). Three years later, Russia, Denmark, and Poland, looking across the sea with hungry eyes, formed a league for the dismemberment of his kingdom. They had yet to learn that the sword was a toy familiar to the hand of the boy-king, who had loved from his earliest days to play at soldiers. **1700 A.D.**

Moving swiftly, first upon Denmark, and then upon the Polish army at Riga, Charles rid himself of two out of his three foes. And then he beat the Russians in the great battle of Narva.

A Russian force of eighty thousand men, largely officered by Germans, was besieging Narva, a small town near the Gulf of Livonia, when Charles advanced with only eight thousand troops to its relief. Having battered the Russian camp with his cannon, he poured through the breach his gallant Swedes, with bayonets fixed. A snow-storm just then drove its flakes into the eyes of the Russians, who gave in after three hours of close and desperate fighting. The jealousy with which the Russians looked upon their foreign officers, prevented that cordial union which might have saved the camp. The Russians lost five thousand men; the Swedes scarcely twelve hundred. Charles let all his thirty thousand prisoners go free, except a few of the officers. **Nov. 30, 1700 A.D.**

Peter was not at the battle. "Ah," said he, when the vexing news came, "These Swedes, I knew, would beat us, but they will soon teach us how to beat them."

Charles made use of his victory to invade and conquer Poland. Three campaigns completed the humiliation of Frederic Augustus, and the crown of the deposed monarch was conferred by the conqueror on Stanislaus Leczinski (1704).

Meanwhile Peter had been straining every nerve to meet the Swedes, and have his revenge for Narva. Melting down the church-bells to make new cannon, and drilling his soldiers with incessant activity, he prepared for a great struggle. Nor amid his warlike preparations was he forgetful of social reforms. The building of hospitals, of linen and paper-mills, the introduction of a fine breed of Saxon sheep, and the establishment of the printing-press were among the many boons which his fertile and

untiring spirit gave to Russia. The foundation of St. Petersburg dates from this time.

The czar, filling Lakes Peipus and Ladoga with his ships, worked his way steadily northward through Livonia and Ingria, took Marienburg, and secured the possession of the Neva. At the mouth of that river, upon a swampy island, he built his new capital. While superintending the work in person, he lived for a while in a wooden hut. It was nothing to him that the cold and wet and poisonous gas from the marshes killed one hundred thousand of his workmen. In spite of all obstacles the city rose fair and strong. About the same time Menzikoff, raised from selling pies in the street to be the friend and favorite of the czar, was employed in founding a very strong fortress on the island of Cronstadt, twenty-one miles down from St. Petersburg. Every succeeding czar has strengthened and enlarged the granite batteries of this great stronghold.

On all these doings Charles cast a scornful eye. But he had little cause for scorn. The conquest of Ingria, along the southern shore of the Gulf of Finland, still further increased the growing power of the czar, who made Menzikoff governor of the newly-acquired province, conferring upon him at the same time the titles of Field-Marshal and Prince.

1707 A.D. At last Charles turned from his Polish and Saxon wars to invade Russia with eighty thousand veteran troops. It was a fatal step. "Nowhere but at Moscow will I treat with Peter," said the boastful Swede. "Ah," said rough Peter, "my brother wishes to play the part of Alexander—he shall not find a Darius in me."

The plan adopted by Peter was simple and sensible. Laying waste the western provinces, he decoyed Charles into the heart of a hostile, barren land, where frost and famine did their deadly work on the Swedish battalions. The invitation of Mazeppa, hetman of the Cossacks, turned the Swedish king from the road to Moscow to the district of the Ukraine. But Mazeppa's promises of aid were broken reeds. At last came the time for which Peter had planned and longed. With an army of eighteen thousand frost-bitten, ragged, hungry men, Charles besieged the small town of Pultowa on the Worskla, an eastern tributary of the Dneiper. Peter, coming up with seventy thousand fresh troops, poured reinforcements into the town.

June 15, 1709 A.D. And then a great pitched battle was fought. Charles, who was suffering from a wound in his foot, was carried in a litter to the field. The czar led the centre of his army, intrusting the wings to Menzikoff and Bauer. The Swedes fought with desperate valor. More than once they broke the Russian lines; but at last, outnumbered and exhausted, they gave way and fled. In two

hours the ruin was complete. The litter in which Charles lay was smashed by a round shot; Peter had a bullet through his hat; Menzikoff had three horses killed under him. The royal Swede rode from the field with a few hundred horse, and hid his diminished head within the Turkish town of Bender. Nine thousand of his men fell on the bloody field. From that day Russia, overshadowing all the East with her giant bulk, has been one of the great powers of Europe.

The Turks were not unwilling to draw the sword against a neighbor so dangerous as Peter. When Charles, therefore, came among them, a beaten man, burning for revenge, they declared war against Russia. The czar, marching with forty thousand men to the Pruth in Moldavia, was surrounded by a Turkish host of far greater number. For three days the Russians, formed into a square, maintained a hopeless contest. Then Peter's young wife, the celebrated Catherine Alexina, saved her husband and his troops by sending a present of her jewels to the Turkish vizier. Peace was proposed, the offer was accepted, and a treaty was concluded, greatly to the anger of Charles. 1711 A.D.

This "Madman of the North," as he has been called not unjustly, wore out his welcome in Turkey, and would take no hint about returning to his own land. Money was given him to pay his expenses home. He took it, spent it, but would not go. He even armed his servants against the Turkish janissaries who came to remove him, and killed twenty of them with his own sword. Still scheming, and tasking the generosity of the Turks, he lived on in a sort of state-custody, while Peter stripped Sweden forever of Ingria, Livonia, and Finland, and the kings of Prussia and Denmark laid violent hands on the Swedish dominions south of the Baltic.

Returning in 1714 to Sweden, he spent his last strength in a vain attempt to conquer Norway, during which he was killed by a cannon-shot, that struck him in the head, at the siege of Fredericshall (December, 1718). Military glory was his one absorbing passion.

In 1716 Peter made a second tour of Europe, visiting Stockholm, Amsterdam, Paris, and Berlin; in the last of which Frederic William I., who was a kindred spirit, gave him a hearty welcome. Catherine, his second wife, who had formerly been married to a sergeant of dragoons, accompanied him on this tour. But the news of a plot, in which Alexis, his son by the divorced Eudokhia, had some share, recalled him to Russia. The unhappy young man was tried for his life, and condemned; but he died mysteriously in prison (1718).

Peter's last military exploit was an unsuccessful expedition to Persia, undertaken on pretence of supporting the rightful 1722 A.D.

Shah against a usurper, but in reality with a view to secure a footing on the Caspian shores.

This greatest of the czars died January 28, 1725, of fever, caught by wading knee-deep in Lake Ladoga, to aid in getting off a boat which had stuck on the rocks.

The character of Peter may best be given in the words of Voltaire: "He gave a polish to his people, and was himself a savage; he taught them the art of war, of which he was himself ignorant; from the sight of a small boat on the river Moskwa he created a powerful fleet; he made himself an expert and active shipwright, sailor, pilot, and commander; he changed the manners, customs, and laws of the Russians, and lives in their memory as the 'Father of his Country.'" In spite of his savagery and coarseness, the name "Great" is fairly due to him whose foresight and energy molded a mass of brutal nobles and crouching serfs into the great nation of the Russians.

SOVEREIGNS OF SWEDEN.

	A.D.
Charles X.	1654
Charles XI.	1660
Charles XII.	1697
Ulrica Eleanora	1719
Frederic I. (her husband)	1741
Adolphus Frederic	1751
Gustavus Adolphus III.	1771
Gustavus Adolphus IV.	1792
Charles XIII.	1809
Charles (John) XIV., Bernadotte	1818
Oscar	1844

SOVEREIGNS OF RUSSIA.

	A.D.
Peter the Great	1689
Catherine I.	1725
Peter II.	1727
Anne	1730
Ivan VI.	1740
Elizabeth	1741
Peter III.	1762
Catherine II.	1762
Paul	1796
Alexander	1801
Nicholas	1825
Alexander II.	1855

CHAPTER III.

FREDERIC II. (THE GREAT) OF PRUSSIA.

Central Point: THE CAMPAIGN OF 1757 A.D.

Rise of the Prussian kingdom—Early life of Frederic II.—His accession—The Pragmatic Sanction—Frederic seizes Silesia—Maria Theresa—The Austrian war—Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle—Eight years of peace—The Seven Years' War begins—Rossbach and Leuthen—Liegnitz and Torgau—Peace of Hubertsburg—Partition of Poland—Her unhappy fate—Last acts of Frederic—His death and character—Good deeds of Maria Theresa.

WHILE Elizabeth sat on the English throne, the Electors of Brandenburg added to their dominions the dukedom of Prussia. Frederic William, the "Great Elector," acquired Halberstadt and Minden by the treaty of Westphalia. In 1657 the same active prince flung off the yoke of Poland; and some years later, he obtained possession of Magdeburg. So, with gradually widening boundaries, Prussia grew to be a kingdom; the first year of the eighteenth century marking the change of the last elector, Frederic III., into the first king, Frederic I. **1701 A.D.**

Third on the list of Prussian kings stands his name—most renowned in the royal roll—who forms the subject of this chapter.

Frederic the Great was born in 1712. His father was Frederic William I., and his mother Sophia Dorothea of Hanover. Exposed during childhood and youth to the fury of his savage father, who seems to have cared little for any one except the giant guardsmen whom he paid so well, young Frederic grew up amid hardships such as princes seldom suffer. He learned to love his mother; but it is not wonderful that he bitterly hated his other parent. At last, weary with being kicked, raved at, and fed on bread and water, the prince ran away; and when he was caught, was saved from the death of a deserter only by the pleading of the Emperor of Austria.

Having married a German princess in 1733, he spent the six years previous to his accession quietly at Rheinsberg—playing billiards, scribbling books, and writing letters to Voltaire and other literary friends. The opinions of the brilliant French infidel had no small share in molding the character of Frederic.

The death of old Frederic William in 1740 raised his son to the throne of Prussia. At once this son began to realize the darling dream of his unhappy boyhood—to be a great soldier. Plenty of money, and a fine, well-drilled army, were ready to his hand. He took them, and began a war. **1740 A.D.**

Nearly thirty years before, a law, called the "Pragmatic Sanction,"* had been passed by the Emperor Charles VI. By this he decreed, that, if he left no sons, his dominions should descend to his daughters. One by one —in some cases with trouble and delay—the consent of the great European powers to this arrangement had been won. And now, upon his death (October, 1740), his daughter Maria Theresa became mistress of the hereditary dominions of the house of Austria.

At once a rapacious host rose around the hapless princess, greedy to despoil her of her realms. Foremost among these was Frederic of Prussia, who pounced upon Silesia, claiming it as an old territory of the house of Brandenburg. The victories of Mollwitz in 1741, and Czaslau in 1742, left him master of the coveted lands. Maria Theresa, dreading this formidable soldier, and anxious to bend all her energies against her other foes, made over to him, by the treaty of Breslau, the full sovereignty of Silesia and Glatz (June 11, 1742).

The other foes of Maria Theresa were many; but chief among them were the Elector of Bavaria—made Emperor Charles VII. at Frankfort, in February, 1742—who claimed all the Austrian possessions, and the King of France, who helped the elector, in utter contempt of the Pragmatic Sanction, which he himself had guaranteed. Her only friend was England.

It was when the troops of Bavaria and France had advanced in 1741 within a few leagues of Vienna, that the princess, fleeing to Presburg, had flung herself on the chivalry of the brave Hungarians. When her sorrowful words, spoken in Latin, as she stood in her mourning dress, with her little son nestling in her bosom, fell upon their ears: "Abandoned by my friends, persecuted by my enemies, and attacked by my nearest relations, I have no resource but in your fidelity and valor," the hall grew bright with flashing swords; and "We will die for Maria Theresa!" echoed from its ancient roof. So, with Hungarian steel bristling in her defense, and English gold pouring into her coffers, and Frederic, who, as we have seen, was bought off by the cession of Silesia, standing aloof, the cause of the queen began to prosper. The French, who held Prague, were forced to retreat in the depth of a severe winter; and the emperor, too, had to flee.

But this sudden turn in the tide of war brought Frederic again into the field. Fearful that in the flush of victory the Queen of Hungary

* There are four "Pragmatic Sanctions" in modern history—1. A law passed by Charles VII. of France in 1438, defending the Gallic Church from certain interferences of the Pope; 2. A decree of the German Diet in 1439; 3. That of the Emperor Charles VI., here noticed; 4. That by which Charles III. of Spain gave up Naples to his third son in 1759.

might wrest the newly-won Silesia from him, he formed a secret alliance with France and the emperor. In accordance with this, he invaded Bohemia in 1744, but was forced to leave it before the end of the year. The death of the Emperor Charles VII., which happened early in 1745, relieved Maria Theresa from a formidable foe, and excited new hopes in her breast that her husband, the Grand Duke of Tuscany, might be elected to fill the vacant imperial throne. These hopes were realized, in spite of all that the great house of Bourbon could do; and Francis I. became emperor. Frederic, though victorious in the campaign of 1745, was glad to sheath the sword; and, by the treaty of Dresden, which closed the war in Germany, he acknowledged the husband of Maria Theresa as head of the empire.

During this war, in which England and France took opposite sides, were fought the battles of Dettingen (1743) and Fontenoy (1745). After the peace of Dresden, the struggle was continued in the Netherlands and Italy between the houses of Bourbon and Austria, until a peace concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle gave rest for a while to worn- **Oct. 7, 1748** A.D. out Europe. This treaty confirmed in general the arrangements made by those of Westphalia, Nimeguen, Ryswick, and Utrecht; secured the possession of Silesia and Glatz to Prussia; and made over to Don Philip of Spain, under certain conditions, Naples, Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla.

Eight years of peace followed. This breathing-space was devoted by Frederic to the good of Prussia. He drew up the Frederician code of laws. He travelled through many parts of his kingdom, doing what he could for tillage, trade, and manufactures. He built palaces in Berlin and Potsdam; and he spent much time, pen in hand, writing books in French. Of these works the most considerable are his "Memoirs of the House of Brandenburg," and his poem on the "Art of War." But he never forgot that he was a soldier. A large slice of his revenue went to maintain his army, which he had lately raised to one hundred and sixty thousand men. These soldiers, officered with care and drilled incessantly, were lodged in barracks enriched with the most costly and beautiful ornaments of architecture.

Both in India and America the interests of France and England had long been clashing. Open war was at last declared. Already blood had been spilled in the colonies; but it was not until 1756 that the German King of England, trembling for the safety of his beloved Hanover, formed an alliance with Frederic of Prussia, and prepared for a stern struggle. The great powers of Europe ranged themselves on one side or other. Austria, glad to see the tie between France and Prussia at last broken, took arms in the hope of recovering the lost Silesia. Thus Austria,

France, Russia, Saxony, Sweden, and Poland, were arrayed against Prussia and England; and the great Seven Years' War began.

The colonial war between France and England, which interweaves itself with the Seven Years' War, lies beyond our scope. We shall trace the story of the war as it affected Continental Europe only; and to make the sketch clearer, we shall follow the order of the seven campaigns.

Frederic began the war. At the head of seventy thousand men, he invaded Saxony, moving his troops by converging roads towards Dresden, the great centre of attack. He defeated the Austrians at Lowositz. Then, seizing the archives of Dresden, and smashing the cabinet in which the state papers were kept, he read the whole story of the secret plot laid for the partition of Prussia. These papers he published, in order to defend the step he had taken.

Sept. 1756 A.D.

The second campaign—greatest of the seven—began with the invasion of Bohemia by Frederic and his Prussians. Near Prague he won a great battle over the Austrians, and then besieged the city. But the advance of the Austrian Marshal Daun, whose intrenched camp at Kolin was the scene of Frederic's first great defeat, saved the Bohemian capital. A thunder-shower of misfortunes then seemed to burst over the head of the Prussian king. The house of Brandenburg tottered to its lowest stone—Russians breaking through his eastern frontier, Swedes in Pomerania marching on Berlin, his friends the English driven in disgrace from Hanover by the French, who were rapidly advancing into Saxony. In the midst of all, his mother died. He loved her well, and in his utter despair suicide seemed his only refuge from a crowd of miseries. Then came the turn of the tide. The Russian empress took ill, and her troops were recalled. This was one foe less. Dashing suddenly into Saxony, with only twenty thousand men, he faced a French and Austrian army, twice the size of his own, at the village of Rossbach.

About eleven o'clock in the morning of a winter day, the massive lines of the allied armies advanced in battle array, exulting in their strength, and sure of victory. Frederic, seeming not to stir, silently moved his troops into a new position. Their march was concealed by the broken ground; and when, later in the day, the allies moved to the attack, they were met and broken into huddled crowds by an avalanche of horses, men, and cannon-shot, pouring with terrific speed and force upon their lines, already disordered by the hurry of their advance. In half an hour the fate of the day was decided. While Frederic lost only a few hundred men, nearly nine thousand of the foe were killed, wounded, or made prisoners.

Nov. 5, 1757 A.D.

Just a month later (December 5) Frederic defeated the Austrians in

the great battle of Leuthen, or Lissa, in Silesia. His tactics were here the same as at Rossbach. Feigning to attack their right wing, he suddenly concentrated a great force, which he had quietly mustered behind the hills, upon their weakened left, and swept it before him. Instead of returning the move, the Austrian general moved the right wing up to support the broken left. But he was too late; and the whole Austrian force was driven from the field, in spite of their gallant stand, maintained for a full hour among the houses of Leuthen. The action lasted from one to four in the day. The Austrians lost in killed and wounded twelve thousand men; the Prussian loss was at least five thousand. The immediate results of the victory were the re-capture of Silesia, which had been overrun by the Austrians, and the exaltation of Frederic to the greatest fame. London was a blaze of illumination in his honor, and the English Parliament voted him £700,000 a year.

Early in the third campaign, an army of English and Hanoverians, under the Duke of Brunswick, drove the French back across the Rhine. Later in the year, Frederic inflicted a terrible defeat upon the Russians at Zorndorff, in Brandenburg. From nine in the morning till seven in the evening, the Russians, formed into a square, held their ground under incessant discharges of artillery, followed by rapid charges of horse and foot. Twenty-one thousand Russians lay slain on this fatal field. Still later in the season, Count Daun, the leader of the Austrians, broke the right wing of Frederic's army at Hochkirchen, in Saxony; but on the whole the cause of the Prussian king was triumphant in the campaign. He still held Silesia; and the French had been driven from Germany.

Aug. 25, 1758 A.D.

Blow after blow fell heavily on Frederic in the fourth year of the war. It is true that his ally, Ferdinand of Brunswick, defeated the French in the battle of Minden (August 1), thus saving the Electorate of Hanover from a second conquest. But the Prussian king himself, meeting the Russians at Kunersdorf, in Brandenburg, was driven from the field with the loss of eighteen thousand men. Dresden was taken and held by the Austrians. An army of nearly twenty thousand Prussians, hemmed in by Austrian bayonets among the passes of Bohemia, was forced to surrender at discretion to Marshal Daun.

Aug. 12, 1759 A.D.

After some vain attempts at negotiations, the war continued with increased bitterness. Frederic was desperate. He stood at bay amid a gigantic host of two hundred thousand men; and all his efforts could not muster half that number. Yet with these he was victorious, gaining strength from the very hopelessness of his cause. The defeat of his general Fouquè, in Silesia, roused him to action. Draw-

1760 A.D.

ing off Daun by a pretended march into Silesia, he turned suddenly upon Dresden. For many days a storm of cannon-shot poured upon the city, crumbling some of its finest buildings into dust. But the return of Daun, who quickly perceived the false move he had made, obliged Frederic to abandon the siege. Yet he soon made up for this temporary check.

By his victory over Laudohn at Liegnitz, when three Austrian generals lay round his camp, sure now that they had the lion in their toils, he prevented the union of the Russian and Austrian forces. Then, enraged by the pillage of Berlin, into which the Russians and Austrians had made a hasty dash, he followed up his success by an attack upon the camp of Daun, who had intrenched himself strongly at Torgau, on the Elbe. Broken three times by the fire of two hundred Austrian cannon, the Prussian troops struggled bravely up to the batteries, took them, and drove the defenders in disorder across the river. Darkness alone saved the Austrians from annihilation. The immediate result of this great victory was the recovery by Frederic of all Saxony except Dresden. And, stricken with sudden fear, his enemies all shrank away from Prussia. This year is also marked by the formation of a secret treaty, called the Family Compact, formed between the Bourbons of France and Spain.

The war dragged on through its sixth campaign. The King of Prussia, thoroughly exhausted by his enormous efforts, remained in a strong camp in the heart of Silesia, watching his foes, but able to do no more. Again, we are told, the thought of suicide crossed his mind.

A death saved him. Elizabeth of Russia died on the 5th of January, 1762, and her successor, Peter III., Frederic's warm admirer and friend, not only made peace, but sent him aid. The example set by Russia was followed by Sweden. Then came the Peace of Paris, concluded by England, France, and Spain. Thus Austria and Prussia fronted each other alone, and they, too, signed the peace of Hubertsburg, which left the face of Germany on the whole unchanged.

Feb. 1763 A.D.

Frederic still held the small province of Silesia, for the sake of which the life-blood of more than a million had been poured out like water. And so ended the great Seven Years' War, of which the Prussian king was the central figure, and in which he won imperishable renown as a gallant soldier and a daring tactician.

Frederic then set himself to repair the terrible mischief done by the war. He gave corn for food and seed to the starving people, and rebuilt the houses that had been burnt. Silesia was freed from the payment of all taxes for six years, and other districts received the same boon for a shorter time. Rewards to his living soldiers, and pensions to the widows and children of the dead, were bestowed with no niggard hand.

In his attempts to revive the drooping commerce and increase the revenue of Prussia, he made some sad mistakes, of which, perhaps, the worst was the debasement of the coin. Great as he was in military affairs, he was no political economist. And amid all his plans and works of peace, he maintained a great army of one hundred and sixty thousand men.

Frederic's share in the great crime of the eighteenth century must now be noticed. It is said that the wicked plot was hatched in the fertile brain of this great Prussian king ; but there is reason to think that it was an old design, dating so far back as 1710, in the days of Frederic I. A kingdom, "the eldest born of the European family," bright with fair fields, broad rivers, and a genial sky, and filled with a valiant but very restless people, lay overshadowed by three giants. The curse of discord filled the land with blood and tears and failing strength. When great assemblies of her armed knights met to elect their king or transact other state business, they often returned home without having passed a single act, paralyzed by the strange power of a *veto*, which they all possessed, and by which a single man could dissolve the assembly.

Poland was the unhappy land. Around her stood Austria, Prussia, and Russia, who, seeing her weakness and her broken heart, stooped together and with felon hands tore away one-third of her do- **1772** minion. Frederic thus gained Polish-Prussia as far as the A.D. Netz, except Dantzic and Thorn. Catherine II., of Russia, and Maria Theresa, whose conscience stung her sorely before she joined in the robbery, had each a share of the unrighteous spoil. Stanislaus II. was then King of Poland.

Twenty-two years later, there was a great uprising of the brave Poles under Kosciusko. But might was stronger than right. Stanislaus resigned his crown ; and the second and final partition of Poland took place (1795). And in 1832, while Britain was dreaming of Parliamentary Reform, and France was still throbbing with the pangs of her second Revolution, the old kingdom of Poland was swept from the map of Europe by a *ukase* of Nicholas, the Russian czar.

In 1778 the emperor formed a design of partitioning Bavaria. But here Frederic interfered on the weaker side ; and by the Peace of Teschen the evil was averted. Another attempt on Bavaria was thwarted by the "*Fürstenbund*," an alliance among the German princes, which was concluded chiefly at the instance of Frederic. His last great public act was the conclusion of a commercial treaty with the United States of America, in 1786.

Gout and asthma, ending in dropsy, brought Frederic to his **Aug. 17,** death-bed, in the seventy-fifth year of his age. He had reigned **1786** nearly forty-seven years. He was a great soldier, of daring A.D.

courage in battle, of quick and fertile genius in difficulty, of most elastic spirit in the hour of depression and dismay. But, like all men of inordinate ambition, he cared nothing for the feelings of others. Blood he shed in torrents, yet the "red rain" seemed never to cost him a thought. When it is added that he was a hater of women and a scoffer at religion, we can see that Frederic, with all his brilliancy of fame, was not a lovable man.

The name of Maria Theresa has often occurred in the story of Frederic's reign. When her husband, Francis I., died in 1763, her son Joseph was raised to the imperial throne. Still holding the reins of power, she continued to rule until 1780, when death cut short her course of usefulness. Among the benefits which she gave to her subjects, the checking of the Inquisition and the suppression of the Jesuits were not the least. There are few names more honored in the long roll of illustrious women than the name of this Empress Queen, upon whose fair fame there rests but one blot—her unwilling part in the division of Poland.

DUKES AND KINGS OF PRUSSIA.

DUKES.

	A.D.
JOHN SIGISMUND	1616
GEORGE WILLIAM	1619
FREDERIC WILLIAM (the Great Elector)	1640
FREDERIC	1688

KINGS.

Crowned King as FREDERIC I.	1701
FREDERIC WILLIAM I.	1713
FREDERIC II. (the Great)	1740
FREDERIC WILLIAM II.	1786
FREDERIC WILLIAM III.	1797
FREDERIC WILLIAM IV.	1840

CHAPTER IV.

LIFE IN FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XIV.

The noblesse humbled—The soldiers—Sale of offices—The Roturier—The Gabelle—The rich lords—View of the Court—Shifts to raise money—Vanity of Louis—His expensive life—Palace at Versailles—Dress of the time—Brilliant writers—Influence of ladies—Duelling.

It was the great aim of Louis XIV. to centralize all power in himself. He, therefore, lost no opportunity of humbling the French *noblesse*. Selecting his chief ministers from the plebeian ranks, he drove many of the lower and poorer nobles, who found their chance of making a name and living by politics gone, to become merchants and shopkeepers. He whose pride could not stoop to such a fall, took mask and pistol and turned *chevalier d'industrie*, or what we in plain English call a highway robber. But the army was the grand refuge for the cadets of noble houses, and to this they flocked in spite of the humiliations which awaited them there. The army then became the true aristocracy; and the haughtiest duke in the realm, who could count back his ancestors for centuries, had to give place to the youngest maréchal of France.

This army was the grand instrument of Louis' despotism. There was no disputing his will, for the soldiers were always at hand. They had been trained and drilled from early boyhood according to the military system of Gustavus Adolphus. For the first time French soldiers were armed, clothed, and accoutred on a uniform plan, regulated by the king. From him alone could promotion come; his royal hand signed every commission. To him they were taught to look for every command and every reward. All the glory they won was for him. While they were young and strong, he drilled them, petted them, and made them the great men of France; and when their beards grew gray, or they left a limb on some bloody field, the splendid Hôtel des Invalides stood ready to receive them in their decay.

The French police system was founded by Louis, who found the need of spreading his spies into every corner of the land. Nothing could happen by the meanest hearth without the knowledge of the police, who sent up constant reports to head-quarters. The Church lands and livings were often given by this despot to laymen; and many a rich abbey had for its owner some fair favorite of the king or his chief courtiers. Unblushingly and most openly the public offices were sold—sometimes even put up to auction. At Rennes, for example, within fourteen years the king sold, besides all the seats in the Civic Tribunal, twenty-seven other posts, taking money even for the appointment of a house-porter.

The *tiers état*, or lower orders, groaned under fearful burdens and led a very wretched life. It was this evil which grew into the tornado of revolution a hundred years later. The *roturier*, or ignoble vassal, owed to the king, as his *seigneur*, eight very heavy duties. One of these, called *corvée*, was the obligation to work on the public roads for a certain number of days every year. There was a capitation tax, too, imposed by Louis XIV., which fell most heavily on the *roturiers*.

But of all imposts, that which excited the greatest bitterness of spirit was the *gabelle*, or salt tax. In the fourteenth century the trade in this necessary of life began to be made a royal monopoly. Four times a year every householder was obliged, whether he would or not, to buy as much salt as was determined by the authorities to be needful for the use of his family. The natural result of such oppression was to demoralize the lower orders. Smuggling became a common trade ; and the passion for it grew so strong, that whole cavalry regiments deserted in order to follow the dishonest occupation.

But the king and his court cared little for this miserable state of the *tiers état*. Their business was to enjoy life as brilliantly as possible. The humiliation of the poorer nobles has been already noticed. That of the rich *seigneurs* was yet more degrading, because it was voluntary. The court was an irresistible magnet, which drew them from their chateaux among the woods of Auvergne, Bretagne, and Provence. They plunged into the whirlpool of fashion and folly, and were fooled to the top of their bent. Gambling was carried on to a most incredible extent. It was thought no shame, but the best fun in the world, to cheat at cards. Royal dukes did it, and were esteemed for their gentlemanly skill in swindling ; why, then, should not men and women of meaner station trick and lie.

Faithful husbands and wives were held up to open mockery in the theatre of the time ; and, therefore, husbands and wives who loved each other and were true became scarce at the French court. The king set an example of unfaithfulness to his queen, which his train were not slow to follow. Life was a constant round of dressing, driving, gambling, and licentiousness ; to pay the heavy cost of which, all over France ancestral trees were cut down, fair acres were loaded with debt or brought to the hammer, and the poor tenantry were squeezed dry, left hopeless and heart-broken. The young nobles, finding common society to pall upon their depraved taste, invited to their tables forgers and highwaymen, whose anecdotes—highly flavored with crime—delighted them immensely. Then, to get money, the meanest and most cruel things were done. Among such expedients, the raking up of forgotten penalties and unclaimed forfeitures was adopted by crowds of needy lords and ladies, who hunted all the country over in search of victims.

The central figure of the brilliant, giddy, wicked throng, was, of course, the absurdly affected little man who wore the crown, and believed in his heart that he was in reality *Louis le Grand.* His strut and swagger were copied on every side, and the most outrageous flattery was poured upon him. One gravely called him "a visible miracle." A lady writing of him said, "That even while playing at billiards he preserved the air and deportment of the master of the world." This and much more he received merely as his due, for his vanity was inordinate. We read of him singing the hymns written in his praise by some flattering lyrist, and weeping with delight at the sound of his own sweet voice and the thoughts of his darling self.

Louis' expenditure was on a most extravagant scale. His wars cost the country enormous sums, and his home-life was scarcely less expensive. We find him in 1670 on his way to the theatre of war in the Low Countries, travelling in a glass coach. Rich furniture was sent on before him, so that when he stopped he might be lodged in royal style. Every night there was a *fête*, or masked ball, with a grand display of fireworks. It seemed as if he could not live a week without these splendors.

His palace of Versailles swallowed up incalculable *livres.* The little hunting-lodge of Louis XIII. could not hold *le Grand Monarque*, who called his architects and gardeners together, and set them to work upon a mansion worthy of his splendor. The principal feature of the huge building, which cost sixteen millions sterling, is its cold, monotonous formality. Magnificent, but not beautiful, it has been well called a type of the age that produced it. The age was intensely artificial; and in the far-stretching Ionic colonades,—the closely-shaven lawns,—the symmetrical terraces and wide, straight walks which divide the trim parterres,—the lakes, cascades, and fountains, resembling anything but Nature,— the even rows of stately elm-trees which border the avenues, and the mathematically correct lines of the palace itself, the artificial seems to have reached its perfection. Statues and vases in great profusion adorn both palace and gardens.

The dress of Louis may be taken as a specimen of the national costume of the time. A great periwig, full of powder, rose high above his forehead, and flowed in floury ringlets on his shoulders and back. Round his neck was a lace cravat, with embroidered ends hanging on the breast. Puffed cambric sleeves with hanging ruffles at the wrist, came out from below the large, wide cuffs of his coat, which was broad-skirted and of velvet. A long waistcoat of rich brocade fell half-way down over his knee-breeches of satin. Tightly fitting silk stockings, and high shoes with silver buckles and red heels, completed his dress. A gold-headed cane, a diamond-hilted small-sword, and a jewelled snuff-box were essential

parts of a fine gentleman's equipment. The little three-cornered cocked hat was seldom perched on the top of the wig, but was generally carried under the arm. The ladies carried fans, wore curls, powder, and necklaces, and contrived to spend at least as much time and money on their dress as did their be-wigged and snuff-box-tapping admirers.

The great brilliance of the court of Louis XIV. was owing to the cluster of wits and literary men whom he gathered round him. Corneille and Racine, the tragedians; Molière and Régnard, the comedians; Boileau and La Fontaine, the poets; La Rochefoucauld and La Bruyêre, the wits; Des Cartes and Pascal, the philosophers; Bossuet and Arnauld, the divines; Mabillon and Montfaucon, the scholars; Bourdaloue and Massillon, the preachers;—all gave lustre to his reign. With such men he lived in close intimacy; and thus, too, he struck a blow at the old noblesse, for this aristocracy of talent, of which he made so much, was drawn almost altogether from the ranks of the people. The writings of these great stars of French literature bear the stamp of the age. They are highly polished and have a stately grace; but they were written by men who breathed an atmosphere of splendid artificiality; and they lack, in consequence, "that touch of Nature which makes the whole world kin." They were not written for the whole world, but for the favored few who wore ruffles and brocade. Dryden and Pope, who got their inspiration from Paris, are the best examples in our own literature of a similar style.

The influence of the French ladies upon the political changes of the nation, was an important feature of the age. The ascendency which such favorites as Montespan and Maintenon gained over the mind of Louis, caused them to be courted by all applicants for royal favor; and in that age of king-worship, who did not look eagerly for the sunshine of the royal countenance? The boudoir usurped the functions of the cabinet; grave secrets of state were revealed, and weighty strokes of policy discussed beneath silken curtains, amid guitars, and flowers, and tambour-work.

The duel, unhappily, still prevailed to a great extent in France, though the evil had certainly grown less. At one time, soon after the well-known cartel of defiance which Francis I. had sent to the Emperor Charles V., duels were alarmingly common. A word or a look often cost a life; and the loss to the country was as great almost as the drain of a bloody war. Under Louis XIV., the code of honor, as it was called, was very formally laid down and punctiliously observed; and the cold stateliness of the proceedings had the good effect of cooling down the fierce brutality which had often marked earlier duels. But still the French gentlemen, with all their frippery, were high-spirited and brave; even the ice of Louis' cere-

monials could not freeze their valor; the hot blood would often boil up, and the diamond-hilted swords grow red.

GREAT NAMES OF THE EIGHTH PERIOD.

MOLIERE (assumed name of Jean Baptiste Poquelin), born at Paris, January 15, 1622—a distinguished French dramatist—also an actor—his first play, "L'Etourdi" produced in 1653—among his many works "Le Misanthrope," "Le Tartuffe," "Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme," may be named—died February 17, 1673.

JOHN MILTON, born December 9, 1608, in Bread Street, London—greatest modern epic poet—Latin secretary under Cromwell—chief works, "Paradise Lost," and "Paradise Regained"—chief minor poems, "L'Allegro," "Il Penseroso," "Comus," and "Lycidas"—chief prose works, "History of England," and the "Areopagitica," a plea for the liberty of the press—died November 8, 1674.

DE LA BARCA CALDERON, born of noble parents at Madrid, 1601—a great Spanish dramatist—wrote about 500 pieces—like Lope, a soldier in youth—entered the Church at the age of 50—then devoted his pen to writing "Autos Sacramentales," or sacred plays (like our Early Mysteries)—died in 1681, aged 80.

PIERRE CORNEILLE, born 1606, at Rouen—son of an advocate—a great French dramatist—made his fame by his tragedy of the "Cid"—other great works "Horace" and "Cinna," produced in 1639—his comedies are not first-rate—died in 1684, aged 78.

JEAN LA FONTAINE, born in 1621, at Château-Thierry—a French poet—lived a quiet, lazy life in patrons' houses—chief work, his "Fables," chiefly selected from Æsop—died in 1695—succeeded Colbert as a member of the French Academy.

JEAN RACINE, born in 1639, at Ferté Milon, in Aisne—a French dramatic poet—his first tragedy, "La Thebaïde," brought out in 1664—"Phèdre" is considered his masterpiece—"Athalie" was his last play—wrote also historical fragments—died April 21, 1697, aged 59.

JOHN DRYDEN, born August 9, 1631, at Aldwinckle, in Northamptonshire—educated at Trinity College, Cambridge—poet-laureate in 1670—chief works, a satire called "Absalom and Achitophel," an "Ode on St. Cecilia's Day," and a translation of the Æneid—died May 1, 1700, aged 69.

JOHN LOCKE, born at Wrington, near Bristol, August 29, 1632—educated at Westminster School and Oxford—the great mental philosopher of his time—great work, his "Essay on the Human Understanding"—died October 28, 1704, aged 73.

JACQUES BENIGNE BOSSUET, born at Dijon, September 27, 1627—consecrated Bishop of Meaux in 1681—one of the greatest pulpit orators of France—died at Paris, April 12, 1704, aged 76.

NICOLAS BOILEAU, born in Paris, November 1, 1636—a noted French poet, remarkable for the moral tone of his writings—chief works, his "Satires" and "Epistles," and the "Lutrin," a mock heroic—died March 13, 1711, aged 74—a member of the Academy.

FRANCOIS FENELON, born at Perigord, in 1651—Archbishop of Cambray—one of the sect called Quietists—denounced as a heretic by Bossuet—best known work, the romance "Telemaque"—died January 7, 1715.

JOSEPH ADDISON, born near Amesbury, in Wiltshire, May 1, 1672—educated at Oxford—much engaged in politics under Anne and George I.—famous for his prose papers in the *Spectator*—wrote also "Cato, a tragedy," a "Letter from Italy," and other poems—died June 17, 1719, aged 47.

ISAAC NEWTON, born at Woolsthorpe, Lincolnshire, December 25, 1642—professor of mathematics at Cambridge—discoverer of the law of universal gravitation—remarkable also for his optical discoveries—chief work, "Principia," a Latin treatise on natural philosophy—wrote also on Daniel and Revelation—died at Kensington, March 20, 1727, aged 85.

CHARLES ROLLIN, born at Paris, January 30, 1661—professor of rhetoric at Plessis—chief work, his "Belles Lettres" and "Ancient History"—died 14th September, 1741, aged 80.

JEAN BAPTISTE MASSILLON, born at Hières, in Provence, 24th June, 1663—the greatest of the French preachers—made Bishop of Clermont in 1717—died of apoplexy, 18th September, 1742, aged 79.

ALEXANDER POPE, born in London, May 22, 1688—son of a linen-draper—chief works, the "Dunciad," the "Essay on Criticism," the "Rape of the Lock," a mock heroic poem, and his translation of Homer's Iliad—died May 30, 1744, aged 56.

ALAIN-RENE LE SAGE, born May 8, 1668, at Sarzeau, in Morbihan—wrote many plays—translated much from the Spanish—best-known work, his novel, "Gil Blas de Santillane," published between 1710 and 1735—died at Boulogne, November 17, 1747, aged 80.

CHARLES MONTESQUIEU, born near Bordeaux, January 18, 1689—a president in the Parliament of that city—chief works, "Lettres Persanes," "Esprit des Lois," and a classic romance, "Temple du Gnide"—died February, 1755, aged 66.

GEORGE FREDERICK HANDEL, born at Halle, in Saxony, February 24, 1684—a great musician—came to London in 1710—composer of many

grand oratorios, among which may be named "Saul," "The Messiah," and "Samson"—died April 13, 1759, aged 75.

FRANCOIS-MARIE VOLTAIRE, born at Châtenay, near Sceaux, February 20, 1694—author of the "Henriade," the only French epic poem. Among his historical works are the "Age of Louis XIV.," "History of Charles XII.," and "History of Russia"—wrote numerous plays and minor poems—lived his last twenty years at Ferney, in Ain—an enemy of the Christian faith—died 30th May, 1778, aged 84.

CARL LINNÆUS, born at Råshult, in Sweden, May 13, 1707—a great botanist—professor of botany and medicine at Upsal—author of many works—died January 10, 1778, aged 71.

JEAN JACQUES ROUSSEAU, born at Geneva in 1712—son of a watchmaker—a skeptic in religious matters—author of many operas, and eloquent literary works—obliged to leave France on the publication of his "Contrat Social," an essay which maintains the equal rights of all men—died July, 1778, aged 66.

PIETRO METASTASIO, born at Rome, January 6, 1698—a distinguished poet—made imperial laureate at Vienna, about 1729—among his sacred dramas may be named "La Passione," "La Morte d'Abel," and "Isacco"—died April 12, 1782, aged 84.

GEORGE, COMTE DE BUFFON, born at Montbard, in Burgundy, September 7, 1707—a great naturalist—chief work, his "Histoire Naturelle"—died April 16, 1788, aged 81.

CHAPTER V.

AMERICAN REVOLUTION, 1775–6.

Battles of Lexington and Bunker Hill—Assembling of a Congress of the Colonies—Washington elected commander-in-chief of the Colonial forces—Declaration of Independence.

ON the 17th day of June, about two months after the battle of Lexington, the battle of Bunker Hill occurred.

The battle of Lexington may be regarded as the inauguration of the war, known as the American Revolution, which resulted in the independence of the thirteen British Colonies in North America. All hope of reconciliation vanished with the outbreak of these hostilities. And the Continental Congress, then assembled, immediately took measures to raise an army, and appointed George Washington, a delegate from Virginia, commander-in-chief.

Congress believing the only mode to treat their difficulties now, was to

declare the colonies independent of the mother, country, published, on the 4th of July, 1776, the following

DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

IN CONGRESS, July 4, 1776.

A Declaration by the Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled.

WHEN, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident:—That all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate, that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these States. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the Legislature—a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise, the State remaining, in the mean time, exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the laws for naturalization of foreigners, refusing to pass others to encourage their migrations hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers, to harass our people and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our Legislatures.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our Constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation,—

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us:

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States:

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world:

For imposing taxes on us without our consent:

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury:

For transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offenses:

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies:

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of our governments:

For suspending our own Legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here, by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burned our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is, at this time, transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries, to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions, we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms; our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts, by their Legislature, to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war, in peace, friends.

We, therefore, the Representatives of the United States of America, in General Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, FREE and INDEPENDENT STATES; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and

independent States, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent States may of right do. And, for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

The foregoing Declaration was, by order of Congress, engrossed, and signed by the following members:—

JOHN HANCOCK.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Josiah Bartlett,
William Whipple,
Matthew Thornton.

MASSACHUSETTS BAY.

Samuel Adams,
John Adams,
Robert Treat Paine,
Elbridge Gerry.

RHODE ISLAND, etc.

Stephen Hopkins,
William Ellery.

CONNECTICUT.

Roger Sherman,
Samuel Huntington,
William Williams,
Oliver Wolcott.

NEW YORK.

William Floyd,
Philip Livingston,
Francis Lewis,
Lewis Morris.

NEW JERSEY.

Richard Stockton,
John Witherspoon,
Francis Hopkinson,
John Hart,
Abraham Clark.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Robert Morris,
Benjamin Rush,
Benjamin Franklin,
John Morton,
George Clymer,
James Smith,
George Taylor,
James Wilson,
George Ross.

DELAWARE.

Cæsar Rodney,
George Read,
Thomas M'Kean.

MARYLAND.

Samuel Chase,
William Paca,
Thomas Stone,
Charles Carroll, of Carrollton.

VIRGINIA.

George Wythe,
Richard Henry Lee,
Thomas Jefferson,
Benjamin Harrison,
Thomas Nelson, Jr.,
Francis Lightfoot Lee,
Carter Braxton.

NORTH CAROLINA.

William Hooper,
Joseph Hewes,
John Penn.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Edward Rutledge,
Thomas Heyward, Jr.,
Thomas Lynch, Jr.,
Arthur Middleton.

GEORGIA.

Button Gwinnett,
Lyman Hall,
George Walton.

CHAPTER VI.

AMERICAN REVOLUTION, 1775–6 (*Continued*).

New forces arrived at Boston, from England—Washington took command of the American army—Invasion of Canada—Battle of Quebec—Arnold retreated—Army under Washington assaulted Boston—British withdrew—Washington moved to New York—Battle of Long Island—Howe entered New York—Battle of White Plains—Capture of Fort Washington—March across New Jersey—Lee taken prisoner—Battle of Trenton.

THE news of the battle of Lexington aroused the war spirit of the colonies, and they at once began to collect around Boston ; so that in about ten days, the city was besieged by twenty thousand men. On the 25th of May, new troops arrived from England, increasing the force of General Gage to twelve thousand. Many of the Americans that flocked to Boston, on the news of the battle of Lexington, were without arms, and had been attracted by a desire to see and hear what was going on.

On the 3d of July, 1775, when Washington took command of the army at Cambridge, he found it to consist of fourteen thousand undisciplined men, some without arms, and the whole without the necessary equipage to conduct a siege.

The Americans invaded Canada in two divisions ; one proceeded by the way of Lake Champlain, and the other by the way of Kennebec River.

Schuyler set out with the western division, but was relieved, and Montgomery took command. He captured St. John's and Montreal early in November, and proceeded to Quebec. He arrived at Quebec during the same month, and united his forces with those who had set out under Arnold, by the Kennebec route. Their united forces did not exceed a thousand men fit for the field.

They at once besieged the city, and on the last day of December, assaulted the defenses of the British, in the midst of a severe snow-storm, and were repulsed, with a loss of about half their men, and their commander, Montgomery. Arnold was wounded and carried from the front, and Morgan took command, pushed on the fight, but, being attacked in both front and rear, surrendered, fighting till he was compelled to desist.

Arnold then, with a miserable remnant of the force, retired to a short distance from Quebec, where he remained until June, when he was glad to escape.

During the winter, the American army, under Washington, remained near Boston. Early in March, 1776, they assaulted the city. The British commander made a sortie, and attempted to drive the Americans from

Dorchester Heights, but not succeeding they evacuated the city. They embarked and sailed for Halifax; and Washington entered Boston, on the 17th of March, 1776.

The Bostonians welcomed him. The city had been for a year in the hands of the enemy. The inhabitants had been subjected to the most humiliating indignities by the ignorant soldiery and their arrogant officers.

Washington, soon after the British left Boston, moved his army to New York, supposing that city would be the next point of attack. Early in July, General Howe took possession of Staten Island. Admiral Howe soon after arrived with fresh troops from England; and in the beginning of August, Generals Clinton and Cornwallis united their forces with Howe's, making an army of over thirty thousand. Washington's army at the same time did not reach half that number.

In the latter part of August, the British landed on the west end of Long Island. Washington had stationed five thousand men at Brooklyn, under the command of Generals Putnam and Sullivan; Clinton attacked them; they retreated behind their defenses with a loss of sixteen hundred in killed, wounded, and prisoners; the British lost less than four hundred. Two days after, Washington crossed the river, under the cover of night, and removed his stores to New York.

About the middle of the following September, Washington moved to Harlem. Three days afterwards, Howe entered New York, and immediately attacked the Americans at Harlem, and was defeated. He then moved up Long Island Sound, and Washington moved to White Plains. Howe attacked him here on the 28th of October and defeated him. Washington having withdrawn his army to Northcastle, Howe returned to New York, attacked Fort Washington, and after a brave resistance it was captured, with two thousand eight hundred men.

Washington passed over the Hudson, marched through New Jersey with the British in pursuit, and crossed the Delaware, his army consisting of less than three thousand. Cornwallis, the British commander, pursued him to the Delaware, and then quartered his troops in Trenton, Princeton, and New Brunswick. Lee, who had been left on the Hudson River, was ordered to join Washington. He put his troops in motion, but was taken prisoner while on his march through New Jersey.

Gloom overspread the cause, and many who had at first favored the cause of independence, forsook the patriots and renewed their allegiance with England.

In the midst of this depression, Washington conceived the plan of attacking Trenton, where fifteen hundred Hessians were stationed. On Christmas night, while the Germans were celebrating the annual festival,

Washington crossed the Delaware with about two thousand five hundred men ; surprised the Hessians in the midst of their revelries, killed about forty, and took a thousand prisoners. Colonel Rhol, their commander, was mortally wounded.

This brilliant affair revived the drooping spirits of the patriots, put new life and courage in the shattered army, and closed the year 1776.

NOTE.—In the beginning of the difficulties, England contracted with the Elector of Hesse, a small German state, to furnish seventeen thousand troops, for a certain sum, and to pay an additional sum for every one that did not return. The sum of $2,355,000 was paid for men that did not return, at $150 per man ; showing that fifteen thousand seven hundred did not return.

CHAPTER VII.

AMERICAN REVOLUTION—1777—(*Continued*).

Washington's second battle at Trenton—Battle of Princeton—Commissioners sent to France—Arrival of Lafayette—Burgoyne invaded the Colonies from Canada—Burgoyne's surrender—Battle of the Brandywine—Congress left Philadelphia—English entered Philadelphia—Battle of Germantown—Condition of the army—Effect of Burgoyne's surrender on Parliament—French aid—Effect of French alliance—Clinton's arrival—Battle of Monmouth—Battle of Wyoming—Campaign to the southern States.

WASHINGTON recrossed the Delaware immediately after the capture of the Hessians. Having secured his prisoners, he returned to Trenton, and on the 2nd of January, Cornwallis attacked him about sunset. The Americans were posted on the east bank of the Assunpink, a small stream which flows into the Delaware at this place. They repulsed the British, and prevented them from crossing the river. Cornwallis withdrew, and said he would "bag the fox in the morning." Washington, about midnight, withdrew, leaving his camp-fires burning, and by a circuitous route marched to Princeton, where he encountered and defeated a part of the army of Cornwallis. The British lost in the encounter about four hundred ; the American loss did not exceed thirty, but among that number was General Mercer. The Americans moved to Morristown, and went into winter quarters. In March, the Americans sent Dr. Franklin, Silas Dean, and Arthur Lee to France to secure aid. They succeeded in obtaining twenty thousand muskets, and one thousand barrels of powder.

The American army moved from Morristown to Middlebrook.

During this year, a number of distinguished Europeans arrived in the

country and took part in the struggle; the most eminent of whom was the young Marquis de Lafayette, who, though not twenty years of age, purchased a ship, loaded her with arms and military stores, sailed for the West Indies; but when the ship was at sea, used the right of the owner of the vessel, and ordered the captain to sail to the United States. Arriving, he presented the cargo to Congress, and offered himself as a volunteer to serve in the army. He was made at once an aid-de-camp, and soon received the appointment of major-general.

He remained, fighting the battles, and relieving the wants of the Americans, to the end of the war.

In June of this year, the British Government sent ten thousand men under the command of General Burgoyne, from Canada into the United States, by the way of Lake Champlain.

General Schuyler obstructed his march as much as possible, and made his progress so slow that he did not reach Fort Edward, on the Hudson, till the last of July. The American army retreated to the mouth of the Mohawk. Schuyler was relieved by Gates.

Burgoyne moved to Saratoga, and the Americans to Stillwater. Several indecisive battles were fought; and Burgoyne, finding his supplies cut off, attempted to retreat to Fort Edward; he now discovered that he was hemmed in on all sides, and offered to surrender. On the 17th day of October he capitulated, surrendering five thousand seven hundred and ninety-one troops.

In July of this year, while Burgoyne was advancing from the North, the British fleet sailed from New York for the Chesapeake, and landed eighteen thousand men at Elkton. This army was put in motion with the design of taking Philadelphia. Washington, anticipating the movement, had moved his army to Chad's Ford, on the Brandywine. There the British attacked and defeated him. The Americans retreated, having suffered a loss of twelve hundred men. Lafayette took part in the battle and was wounded, but not severely.

As Congress was sitting in Philadelphia, great efforts were made to stop the march of the British, but they were so superior in numbers that the Americans did little else than impede their progress. About the middle of September, Congress left Philadelphia for Lancaster, and on the 26th of the same month the English entered the city.

Washington encountered the British army at Germantown, early in October, and after a bloody contest, in which he lost one thousand men, he withdrew and went into winter quarters at Valley Forge, on 11th of December, 1777. The condition of the army was now most discouraging: the winter was severe, the men without blankets, and many with scarcely clothes enough to cover their nakedness; bare-footed and destitute of a

supply of food ; having been defeated at Brandywine and Germantown; and Congress had been driven from Philadelphia. The officers began to resign, and the men in large numbers to desert. It was no wonder that, at the close of this year, the friends of the cause began to despair.

When the news of Burgoyne's surrender reached England, the king and Parliament were astounded. They had laid their plans, and made calculation for no defeats. Besides this disaster, it was rumored that France was on the point of rendering the Americans aid, and that they were negotiating a loan with Holland. The friends of America in Parliament commenced anew their opposition to the nation's policy. They had denounced the use of Hessians in the war, and had been outraged at the employment of savages to murder and scalp their relations in America. The merchants complained that their trade with America had been broken up by the war, and the debts of the Americans made void. American cruisers scouring the ocean had captured six hundred British merchant vessels.

More than twenty thousand men had already perished, and a hundred millions of dollars had been wasted to carry on the war. These things had their effect on Parliament.

In order to reconcile his subjects, the king allowed two bills to be introduced and passed by Parliament. One exempted the Americans from taxation, yielding the point of contest, and the other appointed commissioners to negotiate with them.

When the French Government became acquainted with the passage of these bills, it immediately acknowledged the independence of the United States, entered into a treaty of amity and alliance, and at once equipped and sent out a fleet to aid the infant nation in securing her independence.

The drooping spirits of the patriots, and all friends of the cause of political freedom, were revived, and energy and activity was the consequence.

From the time that France espoused the cause of the American Revolution, no doubt of its success was expressed. Those who secretly favored the cause before, spoke openly, and many who had forsaken it for fear of a disastrous termination, now returned and boldly advocated independence.

In May, Sir Henry Clinton arrived in Philadelphia, and relieved General Howe, as commander-in-chief of the British forces. In June following, he moved his army across New Jersey and proceeded to New York. Washington left his quarters at Valley Forge and pursued him. Coming up with him at Monmouth Court-House, on 28th of June, the advance of the Americans engaged the rear of Clinton's force, and a severe and bloody battle ensued ; they fought all day, and at night both armies rest-

ed on their arms. In the morning it was discovered that the British forces had withdrawn. During Clinton's march to the bay shore, where he took ship, about two thousand of his Hessians deserted.

In the beginning of July, Count d'Estaing arrived in command of a French fleet, bringing arms, ammunition, and supplies of other sorts.

In July of this year, one of the most bloody and heart-rending acts which the history of the war records, took place in the lovely valley of Wyoming, in Pennsylvania. The able-bodied men were absent in the army; the women, children, and aged men were left. A band of Tories and Indians, numbering more than a thousand, fell upon the defenseless people in broad day, murdered them, and laid their homes in ashes. A few escaped to the neighboring mountains, most of whom perished by hunger and exposure.

About two thousand British troops were sent to Georgia by sea, and took possession of Savannah. This was the first attempt the British had made in the southern States, and was the last of the military operations of the year.

CHAPTER VIII.

AMERICAN REVOLUTION—1779—(*Continued*).

Tryon devastates Connecticut—Washington prepares to attack New York—Goes into winter quarters—Distribution of the American army—Effect of the presence of the French fleet—Influence of the French alliance—Condition of American affairs at this period—English in the South—Taking of Stony Point and Paulus Hook—Sufferings of the American army—Contributions and aid to the soldiers—Congress investigates condition of the army—Destitute condition of the army—Clinton prosecutes the war in the South—Besieges Charleston and captures it—Marion's band—Partisans in the South—Arnold's treason—Major Andre.

In July, Tryon, with two thousand five hundred men, entered Connecticut, and devastated the country. He plundered New Haven, set fire to Fairfield and Norwalk, burned two hundred and twenty-five dwelling-houses, more than a hundred barns and store-houses, and five church edifices. The inhabitants were subjected to the most brutal indignities, and many of them murdered.

The British commander, fearing an attack upon New York, brought his troops from Newport. Washington, expecting the co-operation of the French fleet in the harbor, had called out the militia to aid in an attack upon the city; but, as the fleet did not appear, he disbanded the militia, and moving his army to Morristown, went into winter quarters in the latter part of October.

At the opening of this year, Washington's army was distributed in small

departments along the coast, from the mouth of the Connecticut to the capes of the Delaware, with his head-quarters at Middlebrook, New Jersey. The British were strongly posted at New York and Newport. The Americans were so disposed as to prevent communication between the British posts by land, and also to prevent a movement towards the South.

Thus far, the French fleet had accomplished nothing of importance, except to cause England to increase her force, and assume a greater activity; and early in the year sailed to the West Indies to watch the British fleet.

The enthusiasm which the French alliance infused had partially died out; many thinking the French would do all, relaxed their efforts, and the condition of affairs became bad in the extreme. The debt was growing; four years had elapsed since the war began; the enemy was stronger now than ever; and the American army in want of supplies of almost every description, frequently suffering for food. The Tories were numerous and active in the South.

Congress itself was divided in its views of the policy which was best to pursue. Washington wrote, at the opening of this year, that he regarded the affairs of the country in a more distressed, ruinous, and deplorable condition, than they had been since the commencement of the war.

The English entered the South, and, aided by the Tories, devastated the country, from Virginia to Georgia; plundering Norfolk and Portsmouth in Virginia, destroying villages and plantations, carrying off cattle, horses, and about four thousand slaves.

In July, General Anthony Wayne took Stony Point, which had a British garrison of six hundred men, and Lee took the garrison at Paulus Hook, now Jersey City.

The sufferings of the American army during this winter, if possible, were more severe than the last.

The Continental Congress had issued currency, which had gone on depreciating until it required forty dollars of it to equal in value one in silver. It became necessary to levy contributions upon the inhabitants in order to prevent starvation. New Jersey, though taxed most oppressively, remained unshaken in its patriotism. The farmers brought provisions, while their wives and daughters knit, sewed, spun, and wove, to supply garments for the destitute soldiers.

In May of this year, Congress sent a committee to Morristown to inquire into the affairs of the army. In their report they stated that the men had been five months without pay; that they seldom had a week's provisions on hand at one time; were frequently for successive days without meat; that they had no feed for their horses; that the medical department was without sugar, tea, chocolate, wine, or spirits.

Under such circumstances it is marvellous that an army could be kept together at all: we can attribute the patient endurance of such privations to no other motive than the purest patriotism.

Clinton, bent on carrying the war into the South, sailed in January, with five thousand troops, for South Carolina; landing near Charleston, he made preparations for besieging the city. In the month of April, Tarleton took Monk's Corners.

The supplies being thus cut off, Lincoln surrendered on the twelfth of May, giving up four hundred cannon and five thousand prisoners. The South was overrun by the British troops under Tarleton, aided by the Tories. They were greatly harassed by the Whigs, and especially by a band known as Marion's men. So stealthily did he frequently creep upon them, dashing into their very camp, and as mysteriously disappearing, that they gave him the name of the Swamp Fox.

General Clinton, leaving Cornwallis in command in South Carolina, returned to New York in June.

General Gates was sent into South Carolina, and relieved De Kalb. Gates was defeated at Sander's Creek in August, and Sumpter, by Tarleton, at Fishing Creek. Though conquered, the people of the South were not subdued. Bands under Clark, Pickens, Marion, and Sumpter, carried on a guerilla warfare. Marion constantly lurked near some British or Tory encampment, watching his opportunity to make a dash, strike a blow and be off before the foe had recovered from astonishment at the audacity and impetuosity of the onset.

In the summer of this year, the most infamous act that stained the war occurred. Arnold, one of the bravest and most able generals of the American army, was detected in making arrangements to betray the garrison under his command, and place West Point, a most important post, into the hands of the British.

A young man, Major André, was sent to complete the arrangements with Arnold. The vessel which took him up the Hudson was fired on, and dropped down the stream, and when the business was arranged, André was unable to reach his vessel, and started to return to New York by land. Reaching Tarrytown he was stopped by three men, John Paulding, David Williams, and Isaac Van Wart. He took them for Tories, and told them he was a British officer. They delivered him into the hands of Col. Jamison, at Peekskill. On examination he was found to be the bearer of papers which proved him to be a spy. He was tried by a court-martial, condemned as a spy, sentenced to be hung, and on the 2d of October, was executed near Nyack, on the west bank of the Hudson, at a place called Tappan.

In December of this year, England declared war against Holland, for

protecting American privateers. Having previously made war with Spain, she was fighting France, Spain, Holland, and her revolted colonies, at the close of the year 1780.

CHAPTER IX.

AMERICAN REVOLUTION—1781—(*Continued*).

Sufferings of the troops—Factions in Congress—Revolt of Pennsylvania troops—Arnold sent to Virginia—Battle of Cowpens—Cornwallis pursues Morgan—Rising of the River Catawba—Retreat of Morgan's force across the Yadkin—Sudden rise of the river—Retreat to the Dan—Sad condition and destitution of the army—Greene's fame—Preparation of Washington to attack New York—Robert Morris made Minister of Finance—His financial plan—Washington marches to Yorktown—Clinton sends Arnold to lay waste the country—Battle of Yorktown—Surrender of the British.

THE last year of this struggle commenced, as did those which preceded it, by the endurance of hardships and privations by the American soldiers. A want of unanimity existed in Congress, factions opposed each other, and no united effort was put forth for the relief of the army.

Thirteen hundred Pennsylvania troops revolted, and under the command of their sergeants set out from Morristown, their winter quarters, with the intention of going in person to lay their wants and claims before Congress. General Wayne did all in his power to dissuade them, but they went forward. Congress, hearing of the revolt, sent a committee to meet them. They were finally induced to return to duty, by the promise of the committee to relieve their present necessities. They had no intention to forsake the cause, and when two agents from Sir Henry Clinton came to them to induce them to join the British, they were arrested, and hung as spies.

A few weeks after this event, the troops of the New Jersey line also became disaffected; but in a few days the rebellion was suppressed. Great efforts were made to increase the army, and the people were urged to contribute supplies. Volunteers, however, came in slowly, and the people had become wearied with giving, and many were so impoverished, by alternate contributions and plunderings, that they were unable to do more.

The traitor Arnold was sent by Clinton in command of sixteen hundred men, made up of Tories and British, to ravage the eastern parts of Virginia.

Washington dispatched Lafayette, with twelve hundred men, expecting the French fleet would go from Newport to co-operate, hoping to capture the traitor. But the French fleet was intercepted by a superior

squadron of the British, and in the engagement the French were beaten, and put back to Newport for repairs. This was the fourth time that Washington's hopes were disappointed in the aid he was promised by the French fleet.

The English had had things in their own way at the South, up to this time. In January of this year, Cornwallis sent Tarleton to destroy Morgan's force, which at that time was in the country between the Broad and Catawba Rivers.

Morgan attempted a retreat, but was overtaken, and fought the celebrated battle of the Cowpens. They went into battle with about eleven hundred men. Tarleton lost about six hundred, and Morgan about eighty men.

Cornwallis now decided to pursue Morgan, supposing he would stop to rest his force, and being encumbered with prisoners, could be easily overtaken. He therefore destroyed his stores and baggage, and set out.

Morgan anticipating this, left his wounded under a flag of truce, and made all haste to the Catawba River, and crossed it. About two hours after Cornwallis came up, but the river suddenly rose and destroyed the ford. The British were detained two days in crossing. Morgan sent off his prisoners, and allowed his men to rest.

Greene, hearing of Morgan's victory, set his force in motion to meet him, and on the second day after the crossing of the Catawba, joined him and took command. He continued the retreat towards the Yadkin, which he crossed: just as his rear was embarking, the British advance came up, and the Americans lost a small part of their baggage. Here again a special interposition of Providence occurred to save the patriots. Immediately after the American forces had crossed the Yadkin, a heavy rain set in, which so swelled the river that it could not be forded, and Greene pressed on to the Dan, which he reached in time to get his troops over before Cornwallis appeared on the other side. In this march, the American troops suffered the most severe hardships; badly clothed, many without shoes. It was aptly said, that "they bled for their country at every step."

Greene earned in the southern campaign great fame; he fought the British, who were well fed, comfortably clothed, and perfectly equipped, with forces that were ill equipped, half clad, and frequently half fed. He was not only successful in his attacks, but skillful in retreat, possessing a most remarkable ability in avoiding his foe, when he was not ready for him.

Washington, early in the summer of this year, planned to attack New York. Clinton suspecting this, sent for reinforcements to Cornwallis, who at once moved North. Lafayette and Steuben hung on his rear, and harassed him.

When he reached the James they attacked him, and were repulsed. After he had crossed the river, he received a second order from Clinton, which informed him that reinforcements had arrived from Europe. He directed Cornwallis to keep all his troops, and fortify himself at some suitable point in Virginia. He chose Yorktown, at the mouth of York River; here he threw up strong defenses, his troops numbering about eight thousand effective men, besides a formidable naval force of frigates, and other vessels of war.

When Washington learned that Clinton had been reinforced, and Cornwallis had entrenched himself at Yorktown, he laid out extensive works of defense in New Jersey, as if threatening New York, and commenced to concentrate his troops in Virginia. He sent word to Count de Grasse to enter the Chesapeake, and blockade the British fleet, and marched with all speed to Yorktown.

Clinton, to divert the attention of Washington, sent the traitor Arnold to Connecticut, his native State, to lay waste the country. On this expedition the traitor outdid himself in cruelty and wanton destruction.

But Washington pressed on towards Yorktown. De Grasse arrived and landed three thousand troops; these, united to the forces of Lafayette, Wayne, and Steuben, and the army under the direct command of Washington, made a force of twelve thousand, besides the Virginia militia. A combined attack upon the British lines was made on the 9th of October, and continued for ten days, when the British surrendered the land forces to Washington, and the naval force to Count de Grasse. The army numbered seven thousand men. This battle virtually closed the war. The French army went into winter quarters in Virginia, and the American army wintered at Newburg, on the Hudson.

In the spring of 1782, England consented to treat with America. Hostilities ceased; and in January, 1783, a treaty of peace was signed by both parties, at Paris, and on the 19th of April, 1783, just eight years after the battle of Lexington, it was proclaimed in America.

CHAPTER X.

WAR OF 1812.

Condition of the country at the close of the Revolution—Methods adopted to produce prosperity—Immigration—Difficulties between United States and the mother-country—Treaty—France demands assistance from America—America prepares for war—Sea fight—America sent envoys to France, who arranged the difficulties—Difficulty with Turkey—War with Turkey—Complications with England and France, and blockades declared—Right of search claimed by Great Britain—Chesapeake fired upon by a British vessel—Indian hostilities broke out—Declaration of war—Bill passed by Congress to raise an army—War vessels got ready for sea—Letters of Marque granted—British view of the success on the ocean—Disasters on the land—Battle of New Orleans—Proclamation of peace—War with Algiers—Verplanck's address.

THE War of Independence had laid waste the most populous and highly improved parts of the country. The people were impoverished, commerce was destroyed, and the new government saddled with an enormous debt. This was the price the infant nation had paid for political freedom. But the men who had carried the country triumphantly through the Revolution, were not deterred by the formidable work before them. They organized a more perfect Union; originated a financial system which afforded pecuniary relief; passed laws to encourage commerce and home manufactures; invited immigration, offering an asylum for the oppressed of all lands and nationalities; secured to every citizen *political freedom and religious liberty.*

The disturbing influences in Europe, to which the French Revolution of 1790 gave birth, sent many emigrants to the new world, among whom were not only artizans, mechanics, and laborers, but men of wealth came, and embarked their capital in real estate, commerce, and manufactures. By these means the nation became signally prosperous. Population increased with unexampled rapidity, and the solid wealth of the nation kept pace with the increase of inhabitants.

In 1794, difficulties arose between the United States and the mother-country, as England was still called. Great Britain complained that the Royalists, or Tories, were not allowed to recover their estates; and that British subjects were prevented from collecting debts contracted before the war.

On the other hand, America charged Great Britain with retaining possession of military posts on the western frontier, contrary to treaty stipulations, and with the invasion of the rights of navigation on the high seas.

Congress passed acts for raising an army and erecting defenses, and sent an envoy to England to negotiate a treaty with the British Government. Mr. John Jay was the person to whom this business was

intrusted. He returned in the spring of 1795, having secured an agreement on the part of England to give up the posts. But she still asserted her superiority on the ocean, and claimed the right to search American vessels on the high seas. But this being the best that could at that time be obtained, it was reluctantly accepted.

About this time, France employed all her powers of persuasion to induce America to aid her in the wars against other European powers. They even went so far as to threaten to levy *tribute* upon the United States. But America persisted in a strict neutrality, replying to the threat, that they would tax themselves "*Thousands* for *defense*, but not one *cent* for *tribute*." France commenced depredations upon the commerce of America, capturing her vessels at sea, and sent home her minister, refusing to receive another till her demands were acceded to. The United States at once prepared for war, raised an army, and sent out vessels in pursuit of the French cruisers; but, at the same time, *despatched* envoys to Paris, to adjust the matter, if possible, and avoid hostilities.

One of the American frigates, the Constellation, at sea, engaged the French frigate L'Insurgent, and captured her. Soon after this, the French Government, finding their treatment of the United States not calculated to secure their aid, proposed to open negotiations. Mr. Adams, who was then president, at once sent out commissioners to arrange the difficulties. Napoleon was then in power, and the matter was adjusted in a friendly manner.

In 1803, the Turkish power in the north of Africa became troublesome. They had for years exacted tribute from all nations whose ships entered their ports. They took American vessels, appropriated the ships and cargoes, and enslaved the passengers and crews. The United States determined to put an end to these depredations, and sent out a squadron to blockade the port of Tripoli. After some fighting, both on land and sea, the bashaw, becoming alarmed, sued for peace, and the American prisoners were given up. This short war gave the nation some renown as a naval power.

The war between France and England had damaged the commerce of these two nations, by forcing their merchant vessels from the ocean.

America was greatly benefited by these circumstances; she being neutral, her ships did most of the carrying. English merchants complained that America was taking advantage of neutrality to convey goods between the ports of the nations at war.

For this reason American vessels were captured, or seized in port, and condemned. England declared the western coast of Continental Europe in a state of blockade. Napoleon, in retaliation, declared the coast of Great Britain in a state of blockade.

French and English cruisers now captured American merchant ships, and drove them from the ocean.

England claimed the right to search American merchant vessels, and take from them any men whom they believed to be British subjects. Many persons of American birth were in this way impressed, and compelled to serve in British war vessels.

Out of these searches and impressments much bitterness arose. The commanders of the American ships gave up their men with reluctance and very bad grace; while the British officers were insolent and arrogant, exercising their assumed right in an offensive manner. The United States sent commissioners to England, who were received in a friendly manner. The British government only claimed the right to search our vessels for deserters; and, though they refused to relinquish the right, agreed to issue orders to their commanders to exercise the right with prudence and courtesy.

When the treaty arrived the president refused to accept it.

In 1807, the United States frigate Chesapeake was fired upon, and four men taken from her. This outrage was promptly disavowed by Great Britain, and a special messenger was sent over to arrange the difficulty. War was thus kept off until 1812, when the Indians on the northwestern frontier commenced hostilities. It was believed that they had been instigated by English agency; this, with the practice of searching American ships and impressing their seamen, so irritated the United States, that by the recommendation of Mr. Madison, Congress declared war against Great Britain, June 18, 1812. At that time the number of inhabitants had increased to about seven and a half millions.

A bill was passed to raise a regular army of twenty thousand men, and to increase it to seventy thousand by accepting fifty thousand volunteers.

The war vessels fit for sea were put in commission, and others made ready. The merchants were allowed to arm and defend themselves, and letters of marque were issued.

The Americans were remarkably successful on the ocean. In 1813, the following editorial appeared in the *London Times:*

"We witnessed the gloom which the taking of the Guerriere by the American frigate Constitution, cast over high and honorable minds; it is not merely that an English frigate has been taken, after a brave resistance, but it has been done by a new enemy. Five hundred British vessels and three frigates have been taken from us in seven months by the Americans. Can the English people hear this unmoved? Down to this moment not an American frigate has struck her flag; they insult and laugh at us; they leave their ports when they please and return when it

suits their convenience ; they traverse the Atlantic ; they beset the West India Islands ; they advance to the very chops of the channel ; they parade along the coast of South America ; nothing chases, nothing intercepts, nothing engages them, but yields to them a triumph." On the land the Americans met with disasters. The British landed a force in Maryland, near Baltimore, marched to Washington, and took it. They set fire to the public buildings, and burned the national library. No excuse can be offered for this unnecessary destruction of property. The British also landed a veteran force at New Orleans, where they were defeated by Jackson. The British force numbered fourteen thousand veteran troops ; Jackson's entire force consisted of six thousand, a considerable portion of whom were raw, undisciplined recruits ; and many were without arms.

On the 8th of January, 1815, the British assaulted the American works with great gallantry ; but so secure were the American defenses, that after three spirited attacks, the British withdrew, having sustained a loss of two thousand men. The loss on the side of the Americans was *seven* killed and six wounded.

A little more than a month after the battle of New Orleans, peace was proclaimed (February 17, 1815). Both nations had enough of war, but in the treaty no mention was made of the right of search.

The president issued a proclamation, making known the fact that the country was at peace. A day of thanksgiving to Almighty God was appointed and observed by the nation.

During the progress of the war with Great Britain, the Dey of Algiers commenced again to capture American ships, and reduce their crews to slavery.

In May of 1815, a squadron, under the command of Decatur, was sent to Northern Africa. On entering the Mediterranean, it encountered the largest frigate of the Dey's navy, and captured her, and before reaching Algiers, another was taken. This brought the Dey to terms. Decatur compelled him to go on board his ship and sign a treaty, by which he bound himself to surrender all American prisoners without ransom, to give up all claims to tribute, and to abstain from acts of piracy.

This peace, so easily conquered, together with the downfall of Napoleon, left the ocean open, and the flag of the United States was soon found flying in the sea-ports of the world.

The results of civilization and political liberty are shown in the following extract from an address, delivered by Gulian C. Verplanck, in New York City, 1818 :

" The study of the history of most other nations fills the mind with sentiments not unlike those which the American traveller feels, on entering the venerable and lofty cathedral of some proud old city of Europe. Its

solemn grandeur, its vastness, its obscurity, strike awe to his heart. From the richly-painted windows, filled with sacred emblems and strange, antique forms, a dim, religious light falls around. A thousand recollections of romance and poetry, and legendary story, came thronging in upon him. He is surrounded by the tombs of the mighty dead, rich with the labors of ancient art, and emblazoned with the pomp of heraldry.

"What names does he read upon them? Those of princes and nobles who are now remembered only for their vices; and of sovereigns, at whose death no tears were shed, and whose memories lived not an hour in the affections of their people There, too, he sees other names, long familiar to him for their guilty or ambiguous fame. There rest the blood-stained soldier of fortune; the orator, who was ever the ready apologist of tyranny; great scholars, who were the pensioned flatterers of power; and poets, who profaned the high gift of genius to pamper the vices of a corrupted court.

"Our own history, on the contrary, like that poetical temple of fame, reared by the imagination of Chaucer, and decorated by the taste of Pope, is almost exclusively dedicated to the memory of the truly great. Or rather, like the Pantheon of Rome, it stands in calm and severe beauty amid the ruins of ancient magnificence and the "toys of modern state." Within, no idle ornament encumbers its bold simplicity. The pure light of heaven enters from above, and sheds an equal and serene radiance around. As the eye wanders about its extent, it beholds the unadorned monuments of brave and good men, who have greatly bled or toiled for their country, or it rests on votive tablets inscribed with the names of the best benefactors of mankind.

> 'Patriots are here, in Freedom's battles slain,
> Priests whose long lives were closed without a stain,
> Bards worthy him who breathed the poet's mind,
> Founders of arts that dignify mankind,
> And lovers of our race, whose labors gave
> Their names a memory that defies the grave.' *

Doubtless, this is a subject upon which we may be justly proud. But there, is another consideration, which, if it did not naturally arise of itself, would be pressed upon us by the taunts of European criticism. What has this nation done to repay the world for the benefits we have received from others? We have been repeatedly told, and sometimes, too. in a tone of affected impartiality, that the highest praise which can fairly be given to the American mind, is that of possessing an enlightened selfishness; that if the philosophy and talents of this country, with all their effects, were forever swept into oblivion, the loss would be felt only by ourselves;

* Virgil, translated by W. C. Bryant.

and that if, to the accuracy of this general charge, the labors of Franklin present an illustrious, it is still but a solitary exception.

"The answer may be given, confidently and triumphantly. Without abandoning the fame of our eminent men, whom Europe has been slow and reluctant to honor, we would reply: that the intellectual power of this people has exerted itself in conformity to the general system of our institutions and manners; and therefore, that for the proof of its existence and the measure of its force, we must look not so much to the work of prominent individuals, as to the great aggregate results; and if Europe has hitherto been willfully blind to the value of our example, and the exploits of our sagacity, courage, invention, and freedom, the blame must rest with her, and not with America.

"Is it nothing for the universal good of mankind to have carried into successful operation a system of self-government, uniting personal liberty, freedom of opinion, and equality of rights, with national power and dignity, such as had before existed only in the Utopian dreams of philosophers? Is it nothing, in moral science, to have anticipated, in sober reality, numerous plans of reform in civil and criminal jurisprudence, which are but now received as plausible theories by the politicians and economists of Europe? Is it nothing to have been able to call forth, on every emergency, either in war or peace, a body of talents always equal to the difficulty?

"Is it nothing to have, in less than half a century, exceedingly improved the sciences of political economy, of law, and of medicine, with all their auxiliary branches; to have enriched human knowledge by the accumulation of a great mass of useful facts and observations, and to have augmented the power and the comforts of civilized man, by miracles of mechanical invention? Is it nothing to have given the world examples of disinterested patriotism, of political wisdom, of public virtue; of learning, eloquence, and valor, never exerted save for some praiseworthy end? It is sufficient to have briefly suggested these considerations; every mind would anticipate me in filling up the details."

We may follow with this thought. Is it nothing to have subdued a wilderness of three and a half millions of square miles? Is it nothing to have peopled this vast territory with forty millions of people, in two and a half centuries? Is it nothing to have connected all parts of this vast territory by railroad communication? Is it nothing to have given to the world the telegraph? Is it nothing to have established the liberty of the press? Is it nothing to have set up the common school—not common because it is inferior, but common as the light of Heaven is common—where every son and daughter of America may enjoy the means of enlightened intelligence?

Prospect of Arts and Learning in America.—*Berkeley.*

[The following verses were written about one hundred and fifty years ago, by Bishop Berkeley, as prophetic of the future greatness of America.]

The Muse, disgusted at an age and clime
Barren of every glorious theme,
In distant lands now waits a better time,
Producing subjects worthy fame.

In happy climes, where from the genial sun
And virgin earth such scenes ensue,
The force of art by nature seems outdone,
And fancied beauties by the true:

In happy climes, the seat of innocence,
Where nature guides and virtue rules,
Where men shall not impose for truth and sense
The pedantry of courts and schools:

There shall be sung another golden age,
The rise of empire and of arts,
The good and great inspiring epic rage,
The wisest heads and noblest hearts.

Not such as Europe breeds in her decay;
Such as she bred when fresh and young,
When heavenly flame did animate her clay,
By future poets shall be sung.

Westward the course of empire takes its way:
The four first acts already past,
A fifth shall close the drama with the day;
Time's noblest offspring is the last!

NINTH PERIOD.

FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

CHAPTER I.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

Central Point: LOUIS XVI. GUILLOTINED, January 21, 1793 A.D.

France under Louis XV.—Accession of Louis XVI.—His ministers—Meeting of the Notables—Recall of Necker—The States-General—Tiers Etat—The National Assembly—Storming of the Bastile—March of women to Versailles—Events of 1790—Death of Mirabeau—The Legislative Assembly—The three parties—A foreign war threatening—Sack of the Tuileries—Battle of Jemappes—The National Convention—Trial and death of Louis—The Reign of Terror—Christianity abolished—La Vendée and Toulon—Murders on the Loire—Fate of Robespierre—The new constitution—13th Vendémiaire.

When, in 1723, Orleans and Dubois sank within a few months of each other into the grave, Louis XV. was a boy of fourteen. Three years later began the administration of Cardinal Fleury, tutor to the king, which, lasting for seventeen years (1726–43), marks the best period of a shameful reign. Then, when Fleury died, France went rapidly down the hill. The court, ruled by the painted favorites of the licentious king, Pompadour and Dubarry, exhausted every shape of costly debauchery. The last *sou* of taxation was wrung from the starving peasants. The soldiers of France were beaten at Dettingen, at Rossbach, and at Minden. Canada, Nova Scotia, and some of the finest of the Antilles were wrested from Louis by the English. The health of the public mind was sapped by the infidelities of Voltaire and the mock sentimentalism of Rousseau.

Bitter, indeed, must have been the fading days of the worn-out voluptuary, as he sank from his throne into a dishonored grave. Looking on to the future he was not to see, no wonder that he sighed out to his courtiers the terrible truth, "*Apres moi le deluge.*"

Louis XVI. succeeded his grandfather on the 10th of May, 1774. Then twenty years of age, he had been already four years married to Marie Antoinette, the beautiful daughter of Maria Theresa. The young couple entered with the fresh joy of their years into the gayeties of the coronation and all high-born France rang with the noise of feasting. But in every,

square mile of the land there were men whose wives and children cried to them in vain for bread.

Louis XV. had left a debt of four thousand millions of livres. It was a gigantic task—an unsolvable problem—to support an expensive court and government under this enormous pressure. Old Maurepas, the first prime minister of Louis XVI., tried it and failed. Turgot, a clever disciple of Voltaire and Diderot, failed too. The lawyer Malesherbes had to give place to Necker, a banker of Geneva, who reformed the taxation and restored public credit during his five years' tenure of office (1776–81). Then Calonne took the purse from Necker, who was dismissed by a court cabal; and never was seen such a financier.

When the king or queen wanted money to meet a jeweller's bill, or pay the expenses of a ball, or what purpose you please, this smiling, witty minister never refused to honor the demand. His plan was a simple one, but by no means a new invention. We meet Calonnes every day of our lives. He borrowed on every side, without one thought of repayment. For a time this lasted. But the day came when even Calonne could not fill the royal treasury, and some new plan must be devised to make both ends meet, and stave off clamorous creditors; and the expedient adopted in this difficulty was the assembling of the Notables—the chief nobles and magistrates—gathered from all parts of France, who met at Versailles. Calonne wanted to make up for the deficiency of revenue by a land-tax, but his proposal was rejected by these lords of the soil. They suggested other plans, which were adopted by the king. **1787** A.D.

Then came the dismissal of Calonne, who was soon succeeded by Brienne, Archbishop of Toulon. But Brienne could do nothing to stem the rising tide, and Necker was recalled in 1788. There were then only two hundred and fifty thousand francs in the royal treasury.

Necker yielded to the cry for a meeting of the States-General—an assembly not unlike our English Parliament. There had been no such thing since the days of Richelieu. It was a sign that the day for despotism in France was, for a time at least, nearly over.

All over France the elections went on, and no man who wore a good coat was refused leave to vote. Three millions of the people sent up their deputies—lawyers, doctors, priests, farmers, writers for the press—to the great States-General, in which, for the first time during nearly two hundred years, the down-trodden "*tiers état*" was to sit in council with the nobles and the high clergy. After hearing a sermon in Notre Dame, they met in a great hall at Versailles. Here a difficulty arose. The deputies of the *tiers état* would not submit to be separated from the other houses. Sitting in their **May 5, 1789** A.D.

own chamber, they asked the coronets and mitres to join them ; and, when the invitation was rejected in scorn, they formed themselves into the National Assembly.

The king, forgetting the lesson he might have learned when, in early days, he read the History of England with Fleury, stationed soldiers at the door of the hall to keep out the members of Assembly. This was the fatal move. Bailly, then president, led them to the *Jeu de*

June 20. *Paume* (Tennis Court), where they swore a solemn oath not to dissolve their Assembly until they had framed a constitution for France. Then the mitres and some of the coronets began to flock into the Assembly hall. Among the latter sat the Duke of Orleans, infamously known as Philip Egalité—a name he took to please the mob—and the Marquis de Lafayette, a hero of the American war. But greatest of the throng in fiery eloquence and political genius was the ugly debauchee, Honoré Gabriel, Comte de Mirabeau, who sat as deputy for the town of Aix. Robespierre, too—the sea-green, as Carlyle loves to call him—whose pinched face, deeply pitted with the small-pox, was soon to be the guiding-star of the Jacobins, had already, in thin, cracked voice, made his maiden speech.

At last, after many muttered warnings, and long gathering darkness, the tempest broke in awful fury. A fierce mob, whose souls were leavened with infidelity, and brutalized by changeless misery and never-satisfied hunger, raged through Paris streets. The spark which fired the mine was a rumor that the soldiers were marching to dissolve the Assembly. Necker, too, the sole hope of the starving people, had been dismissed. Cockades of green leaves, torn from the trees, became the badge of the rioters. Shots were heard in many quarters. An old man was killed by a bullet from the German Guards.

Then the grim old prison of the Bastile was stormed. Within its dark walls hundreds of innocent hearts had broken, pierced through with the iron of hopeless captivity. The terrible *lettres de cachet*—sealed orders from the king to arrest and fling into prison without a trial, and often without any distinct charge—had packed its dungeons with

July 14. wretched men during the late reign. Little wonder, then, that the first rush of the mob was to the Bastile. Dragging cannon from Les Invalides, they opened a fire upon the walls, burst in, and, seizing the governor, slew him in the Place de Grève.

The flames then burst out all through the land, except in La Vendée. The *chateaux* of the nobles were pillaged and burned to the ground. Tortures were inflicted by the fierce peasants upon their former masters. The royal *Fleur de Lis* was trampled in the mud, and the *Tricolor* upraised.

One day in autumn a swarm of women gathered round the Hotel de

Ville, crying, "Bread! give bread!" It became the nucleus of a riotous crowd, surging with wild outcries through the streets. Then out came Millard with a drum, who said he would lead them to Versailles. Outside the barriers he strove to disperse them, but no—they would go on. Hungry, and wet with heavy rain, when they found **Oct. 5.** that the king and the Assembly would give them only words, they gathered round the palace. Some fool fired on them. Sweeping through an open gate, they spread through all the splendid rooms; and the queen had scarcely time to escape by a secret door, when her bedchamber was filled with a fierce and squalid throng. The timely arrival of Lafayette, and the consent of the king to remove to Paris, alone quelled the tumult.

The next year saw sweeping changes in the Constitution of France. The Assembly, of which Mirabeau was the master-spirit, proceeded to parcel out the kingdom into eighty-four departments **1790** of nearly equal size. Stripping the king of his patronage, they A.D. gave the appointment of new magistrates and officers to the people. Violent hands, too, were laid on the Church lands; and to create a currency, by which these might be purchased, paper bills—called *Assignats*—were issued. But these speedily became worth nothing, for nearly all the gold and silver coin was either carried out of France by the flying nobles, or buried in quiet corners of field and garden. Hereditary titles were abolished; and no greetings were heard in the streets but "citizen" and "citizeness."

On the first anniversary of the storming of the Bastile there was a grand pageant in the Champ de Mars, where the king, the Assembly, the soldiers, and the people swore a solemn oath, to maintain the new Constitution of France. The Jacobin club, so called from holding its meetings in a hall lately occupied by the Jacobin friars in Paris, now began to be formidable in its influence over the Assembly. Branch societies, all in correspondence with the central club, grew up in every corner of France. The dismissal of Necker, who was not radical enough in his policy to please the heads of the Assembly, took place in the last month of this most threatening year.

Dark and still darker grew the sky. Mirabeau, "our little mother Mirabeau," as the fishwomen of the gallery used lovingly to call him, was made President of the Assembly in January, 1791. He exerted all his giant genius to quell the storm, whose rising gusts had been felt at the Bastile and Versailles; and poor Louis clung to the **1791** hope that this aristocratic darling of the rabble might yet save A. D. him. But Mirabeau died in April; and while the spring blossoms were brightening in all the fields of France, the Bourbon lilies

drooped their golden heads. There seemed nc hope for Louis but in flight. He fled in despair, but was recognized, stopped at Varennes, and brought back to Paris.

The Constituent Assembly, having sat for three years, passed a resolution dissolving itself (September 29). The breaking of the nobles' power, the establishment of the National Guard, and the abolition of torture, *lettres de cachet*, and many oppressive taxes, were among the boons it had conferred on France. Its place was taken by a new body, called the Legislative Assembly, which began to sit on the 1st of October.

Three distinct factions were already clearly marked out in this terrible time, and among these a strife began for preëminence. It was, in truth, a battle to the death.

The spirit of the vanished Assembly was embodied in the party of the *Feuillants*, who sat on the right of the tribune. These friends of limited monarchy numbered among them the National Guard and most of the officers of State. The *Girondists*, or Moderate Republicans, formed the second party. Occupying the highest seats in the hall, and therefrom called the "Mountain," sat the Red Republicans—chiefly members of the Jacobin and Cordelier clubs—whose rallying cry was "No King." The list of this third party contained those terrible names which make us shudder at their very sound, and turn sick with thoughts of blood.

The sympathy of the neighboring sovereigns for the wretched Louis, and for the imperilled cause of monarchy, led them now to interfere. A great army of Austrians and Prussians, under the Duke of Brunswick, entered the French territory. Already the violent manifesto which Brunswick issued had roused the French to show a most determined front.

Matters then grew worse than ever at the centre of the Revolution. The Paris mob rose like a sea, swelled by some troops from Marseilles, who, first singing along Paris streets the war-hymn of Rouget de Lille, caused it henceforth to be known as the Marseillaise.

Aug. 10, 1792 A.D. Amid pealing bells, and drums beating the *générale* in every street, they crowded to the Tuileries, whose steps were soon piled with the bleeding bodies of the brave Swiss Guards. Louis escaped to the Assembly; but he was imprisoned with his family in the old palace of the Temple. A National Convention was summoned. Lafayette fled to the Netherlands, where he was arrested by the Austrians.

While the prisons of Paris were still wet with innocent blood, shed by order of the Jacobin leaders, Dumouriez, having taken command of the French army, was marshalling his men on the Belgian frontier. Crossing into Belgium, he inflicted a signal defeat upon the allies at the village of Jemappes (November 6). Acting as aid-de-camp of the French leader

was the young Duke of Chartres, whom we know better in later days as Louis Philippe, King of the French.

The Assembly gave place to the National Convention, whose members were also elected by the people. The wildest orators of the clubs found here their fitting sphere. But three men stood far above the rest in lust of blood. These were Danton, Marat, and Robespierre. The lawyer, Danton, was a strong, thunder-voiced bully, who held office as Minister of Justice. Marat, a quack-doctor, and editor of the *People's Friend*, was the most blood-thirsty villain of the lot. Robespierre we have already seen sitting on the benches of the Constituent Assembly, a very serpent coiled for his deadly spring. Now the time had come. Louis must die.

Sept. 21, 1792 A.D.

The trial of the king, for treason and conspiracy against the nation, began in December. He denied, with proud calmness, the justness of the charge. But denial was useless before judges such as his. Death was the sentence of the court, after a discussion of some days. At ten o'clock on a January morning he was brought in a carriage to the Place de Louis XV., where the guillotine* awaited its noblest victim. Before the fatal knife fell, he tried to address the crowd, who were stunned for the time into deep silence; but the incessant rattle of drums drowned his voice, and in a few seconds more the head of poor Louis Capet—so his republican murderers called him—rolled bleeding in the sawdust.

Jan. 21, 1793 A.D.

At this insult to royalty all the powers of Europe arose, and a circle of steel began to narrow round devoted France. But her energies were not exhausted. All the powers of the state were now centred in a small body of Jacobins, called the "Committee of Public Safety," foremost among whom were the three tigers lately named. The Reign of Terror began. The Girondists, friends of moderate republicanism, were slain without mercy, or driven over the land, without shelter or food, to die. When Marat met a merited death—he was assassinated in his bath by Charlotte Corday, a young girl from Caen (July, 1793)—Robespierre was left sole dictator of France. A frightful carnage followed. Every day saw red baskets of human heads carried from the guillotine, whose dull *thud* was music to the crowd. Women sat and worked as calmly as in the pit of the theatre, while the fearful tragedy was played out before their eyes.

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* "La Guillotine," as the French call this deadly machine, forgetting their native gallantry when they make the name feminine, was invented about 1785, by Dr. Guillotin. It is a large loaded knife set in a wooden frame, and its action is instantaneous. Dr. Guillotin did not, as is commonly thought, perish by his own invention. A similar instrument was in early use in Scotland, where it was called the maiden. It was also used at Halifax, in England.

Fathers brought their little ones to see the heads fall. And as fast as the prisons were emptied by this wholesale butchery, fresh victims, denounced often by their nearest neighbors, were thrust into the cells to await their certain doom.

Queen Marie Antoinette followed her husband to the guillotine and the grave in the October of the same year. Bailly, Condorcet, Barnave, and Madame Roland met the same fate. Philip *Egalité*, whose vote had been given for the death of his royal kinsman, went also to his richly-deserved doom.

Still the mob cried for more heads. The guillotine could not be stopped. Some of the Mountain-men, less tigerish than their fellows, were first laid below its edge. Such were Danton and Camille Desmoulins. It is little wonder that Christianity was cast aside in this Reign of Terror. The Goddess of Reason, impersonated by a worthless woman, was openly worshipped, and torches were burnt before her shrine. A thing was then tried, the failure of which is a noteworthy proof how little man's wisdom is when compared with that of the all-wise God. Every tenth day was appointed a day of rest and amusement; but neither man nor beast could bear the strain of ten days' work. It was found that no arrangement will suit the human frame but that of God's own making—one day in seven—not for sloth or revelry, but, as His law says, to be kept holy.

During these terrible days the Republic was in great danger. The army of Dumouriez was defeated by the Austrians at Neerwinden (1793), and he, finding himself hated and suspected by those in power at home, rode away to the Austrian camp. The desertion of so skillful a leader was a heavy blow. Insurrection raged both in La Vendée, where the Royalists mustered strong, and in the cities of Marseilles, Lyons, and Toulon. Marseilles and Lyons were soon reduced to subjection. Toulon gave more trouble, for the garrison were aided by English and Spanish ships. The cannon of the Republic made but small impression on the town, until their fire was turned upon the forts commanding the harbor. When these gave way, Toulon was abandoned by the allied defenders. This success was mainly owing to the skill of Lieutenant-Colonel Bonaparte, a Corsican officer of artillery, who planned the attack, and directed the laying of the guns. We shall hear more of this olive-cheeked little soldier in succeeding years.

Murders, rivalling in atrocity those of Paris, were perpetrated in many parts of France, but especially at Nantes. Carrier, who was president there, shot men, women, and children by hundreds. Boats, crowded with poor sufferers, were rowed out into the deep Loire, there scuttled, and left to sink with all their shrieking freight.

The death of Robespierre marks the crisis in the red fever of revolu-

tion. Thenceforward France began to mend. Accused by Billaud-Varennes of seeking to establish his own power by the death of his colleagues, this sleek and smiling villain was condemned to die. He escaped, but was retaken. Terror-stricken at the thought of the guillotine—long the slave of his frightful passion for blood, but now to be the instrument of his most righteous punishment—he tried to kill himself; but he only broke his jaw. Groaning with the agony of this wound, and shivering with deadly terror, the unpitied wretch was dragged to the place of execution, and there slain, amid the gibes and yells of the crowd for whose brutal appetite he had been chief caterer. With his death the Reign of Terror ended. **July 28, 1794 A.D.**

In the summer of the next year (June 9th, 1795) little Louis XVII., who had been lingering in the Temple since the death of his parents, died, worn out by abuse and neglect. He was only ten years old.

The Convention then gave place to the Directory. France received a new Constitution—the third since 1789. The laws were to be made by two Councils—the *Ancients* and the *Five Hundred.* The power of proposing a new law lay with the latter; while the former, numbering two hundred and fifty members, all above forty years of age, sat in judgment to pass or reject the proposals of the larger body. The execution of the laws was vested in five Directors, who were chosen by the Ancients and the Five Hundred. Each Director was president for three months, and then yielded to the next in turn. **1795 A.D.**

The Directory was not established without a struggle. It was short, sharp, but thoroughly decisive. The Sections of Paris protested against the change proposed by the Convention, and the National Guard, to the number of thirty thousand, backed the citizens in their resistance. There were only five thousand troops in Paris to oppose this formidable mass. The command of these was given to Barras, who wisely intrusted the cannon to that same artillery officer we have seen directing the bombardment of Toulon.

Bonaparte pointed the guns, charged to the muzzle with grape-shot, down all the streets by which the Tuileries could be approached; and when, on the morning of the 13th Vendêmiaire, the heads of the advancing columns began to appear along the quays and Rue St. Honorè, they were ordered to disperse in the name of the Convention. They moved on. The matches were applied. Gun after gun thundered in the faces of the wedged-up crowd, and the grape-shot tore its way in broad lanes through the mass. There was no standing this. After a few straggling shots and some feeble show of fighting, the National Guard fell back, and the new Constitution stood **Oct. 4, 1795 A.D.**

on firm ground. With this ended the French Revolution, and here opened the wonderful career of Napoleon Bonaparte.

CHAPTER II.

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

Central Point: THE BATTLE OF AUSTERLITZ, December 2, 1805 A.D.

Early life of Napoleon—Entry upon public life—His maariage—Italian campaign of 1796—Campo Formio—Invasion of Egypt—Made First Consul—Battle of Marengo—Treaty of Amiens—The Code Napoleon—Becomes emperor—Crowned King of Italy—Battle of Austerlitz—Battle of Jena—The Berlin Decrees—The Peninsular War—Battle of Wagram—The Austrian marriage—The Russian campaign—Battles of Leipsic—The abdication—Elba—Louis and the Charter—The Hundred Days—St. Helena.

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE was born at Ajaccio, in Corsica, on the 15th of August, 1769. His father, Charles, was a lawyer, but saw some military service under Paoli against the French. His mother was Letizia Ramolini. Of these parents Napoleon was the second son. In April, 1779, the little fellow, then not ten years old, left home for the military school of Brienne. Here he spent five years and a half. His name appears in the report furnished yearly to the king by the Inspector of Schools, with these remarks: "Distinguished in mathematical studies, tolerably versed in history and geography, much behind in Latin, belles-lettres, and other accomplishments; of regular habits, studious and well-behaved, and enjoying excellent health." The story of the snow fortress, attacked and defended by the Brienne boys, when Napoleon led the stormers,

1785 A.D. is a well-known bit of his school life. In October, 1784, the young mathematician left Brienne for the Military School at Paris; and in less than a year he got his commission as sous-lieutenant of artillery.

In the Revolution Napoleon took the popular side. We have already seen him cannonading the outworks of Toulon, and, a little later, tearing the National Guard to pieces with canister and grape. He little thought on that October day that the shots of the cannon, which then boomed out the death knell of Revolution, were pealing in a great era of French history, in which himself was for twenty years to be the central figure.

His rise was rapid after the day of grape-shot. Barras being made one of the Directors, by his influence Bonaparte became, at the age of twenty-five, General of the Army of the Interior. His next great step in life was marriage. Josephine Beauharnais, a Creole of Martinique, and the widow

of a general officer who had perished by the guillotine, became his wife in March, 1796. She was older than he by some years, but a warm and strong affection united their hearts. Before the wedding-day he had received from Carnot, the Minister of War, his commission as General of the Army of Italy.

The fair northern plains of the most beautiful land in Europe were swarming with Austrian soldiers. Old Beaulieu commanded them. When Bonaparte arrived at Nice, he found the army, with which he was expected to beat these hordes of Austrians and their Sardinian allies, little better than a rabble—badly clothed, badly fed, badly drilled, badly paid, and with scarcely a hundred serviceable horses among forty-two thousand men. The one point in favor of the French soldiers was that they were young. Their new general was young too, **1796** only twenty-six, and had yet to be tried as a leader of A.D. armies. It seemed a hazardous cast on which to set the fame of the new French government. Yet that young general with his raw recruits conquered Italy within a twelvemonth. A succession of the most brilliant and decisive victories marked his steps through the land of art and song. At Montenotte and Millesimo he drove back the Austrians, and thus cut them off from the Piedmontese. Having then the latter at his mercy, he soon subdued them.

The Sardinian king, Victor Amadeus III., was glad to conclude a peace upon the humiliating terms of giving up to France all his chief fortresses and all the passes of the Alps. Crossing the Po below Pavia, Bonaparte then forced Beaulieu to fall back upon the Adda. Here was the Bridge of Lodi, ever since a name to stir the blood of Frenchmen. The Austrian cannon, commanding the passage, hurled death in iron torrents upon the advancing columns. But the grenadiers of France dashed gallantly on, carried the bridge, and were **May 10.** among the Austrian guns, bayoneting the artillerymen, before Beaulieu could bring his infantry to the rescue. Milan fell at once before the conqueror. Mantua alone, through all the Lombard plain, held out for a time. Early in November the bloody battle of Arcola raged for three days, ending, like all the rest, in the triumph of the Corsican. The victory of Rivoli and the capitulation of Mantua formed the brilliant opening of 1797. Italy lay at the feet of a young soldier in his twenty-sixth year; and beaten Austria crouched among the pine-woods of the Tyrol.

Crossing the Alps and driving the Archduke Charles before him, Bonaparte then advanced towards Vienna. But, when he had arrived within eight days' march of the Austrian capital, he was met with proposals for peace; and he turned back to overthrow the ancient government of

Venice. This "Bride of the Adriatic" was made a scape-goat for the sins of Austria. The galley *Bucentaur* was stripped of its golden decorations; the Venetian fleet was either sunk or sent to sea; the bronze horses of St. Mark's were carried to the Tuileries, whither already the masterpieces of Italian painting and sculpture had gone. Manin, last of the Doges, fainted as he gave in his oath of allegiance to the Emperor of Austria.

Oct. 17, 1797 A.D.

The Treaty of Campo Formio, concluded between France and Austria, was the seal of this iniquitous bargain. By it France gained the Netherlands and the left bank of the Rhine, the Ionian Islands, and the Venetian territories in Albania. The Milanese and Mantuan States were erected into the Cisalpine Republic.

After a time of quiet repose we find Bonaparte seeking new laurels on the sands of Egypt. Arriving there in the summer of 1798, he defeated the Mamelukes in the battle of the Pyramids. His grand object was to tear India from the British crown. But a mighty foe was on the watch. Nelson had chased him down the Mediterranean, and now destroyed his fleet as it lay in the roads of Aboukir (August 1, 1798). His repulse at Acre ruined forever his hopes of crippling British power in the East. Leaving his soldiers—tired, sick, and starving—under Kleber, to attempt an impossible conquest, he secretly returned to France with a few devoted officers. During his absence of seventeen months (May 9, 1798—October 8, 1799) the Directory had fallen into disgrace with the French people. Austria, with the aid of Suwarrow and his Russians, had recovered Italy. French soldiers had been defeated on the Rhine. And the money matters of the country were sadly behind.

All eyes turned to Bonaparte, who resolved on a change. Abbé Sièyes, one of the Directors, had sketched out a new Constitution, and it remained for Bonaparte and his grenadiers to overthrow the old state of things and lay the foundation of the new. The two Councils were removed to St. Cloud, lest they might be overawed by the mob of Paris.

Nov. 10, 1799 A.D.

Bonaparte appeared one day among them, passed from the hall of the Ancients to that of the Five Hundred, and when in the latter the cry of "No Dictator" rose from the angry members, who crowded noisily round him, a file of soldiers rushed in to save him.

His brother Lucien, who was president, left the chair, and proclaimed the Assembly dissolved. Murat then led through the hall a band of grenadiers, with drums beating and bayonets at the charge, clearing out the members, some of whom tumbled with undignified haste out of the windows. Then the government of France was placed in the hands of

three consuls, appointed for ten years. Bonaparte was First Consul, and held all real power, his colleagues, Sièyes and Ducos, being mere assistants and advisers. These two inferior consuls soon gave place to Cambacères and Lebrun. The law-making was done according to the new plan, by the consuls, a Senate of eighty, a Legislative Assembly of three hundred, and a Tribunate of one hundred members.

The First Consul then began to act the king. He wrote a letter to George III. of England, proposing peace, but the offer was rejected in a strongly-worded reply from Grenville. Already he had detached Russia from the coalition of nations against whom he had to contend. At home, he bent all his energies to the raising of troops, and a quarter of million conscripts were soon marshalled beneathed his banner. He gagged the press. He put down the civil war in La Vendée. He filled France with detectives, whose vigilance covered the land with an unseen network of espionage. And, well aware of the national taste for show, he gathered into the ball-rooms of the Tuileries crowds of handsome soldiers, gay with scarlet and gold, and lovely women, whose toilettes rivalled in taste and splendor the fashions of the later Bourbon dames.

Resolved again to humiliate Austria on the plains of Lombardy, he signalized the last spring of the century by his famous passage of the Alps. With thirty-six thousand men, and forty cannon, he climbed the Great St. Bernard, his soldiers dragging the dismounted guns up the icy slopes in the hollow trunks of trees. Like an avalanche he poured his troops upon the green plain below. On the 2d of June he entered Milan in triumph, and met the wings of his army, which had crossed by the Simplon and the St. Gothard. A fortnight later, he met old Melas, the Austrian leader, on the plain of Marengo, near Alessandria. The French army, outnumbered three to one, was driven back and all but beaten, until the gallant Desaix flung himself with the last reserve upon the Austrian column and broke it to pieces.

May, 1800 A.D.

June 14.

The leader of the charge, to whom, not long before, Bonaparte had presented a sword engraven with the proud words, "*Conquête de la Haute Egypte*," fell dead from his horse, shot through the breast in the moment of victory. The Austrians were soon driven beyond the Adige and the Brenta. In the same year (November 3) Moreau, who had been sent to the Rhine, defeated the Austrians at Hohenlinden. These successes were followed by the treaty of Luneville, concluded between Austria and France. The leading terms of this peace were similar to those of Campo Formio.

Feb. 9, 1801 A.D.

Ere this Christianity had been re-established in France; and the people gladly welcomed the old familiar chime of the church-bells, ringing in

the seventh day's rest. Now a general amnesty was granted to all emigrants who would take an oath of allegiance to the new government before a certain date, and about one hundred thousand exiles turned their weary feet towards home. Wherever it was possible, these returning wanderers got back their old estates. The "Legion of Honor" was instituted, for both soldiers and civilians. England was the power most dreaded by Bonaparte; and he well knew that her navy was her highest glory and greatest strength. He worked in the northern courts until he united Russia, Sweden, Denmark, and afterwards Prussia, in a formidable league against England and her ships. But Nelson, sailing into the harbor of Copenhagen in the face of two thousand cannon, crushed the naval power of Denmark in four hours (April 2, 1801). And, a few days earlier, the Emperor Paul of Russia was strangled by conspirators. So the giant league melted into nothing. At the same time, British bayonets, under Sir Ralph Abercrombie, scattered the last relics of the army which Bonaparte had abandoned in Egypt.

These disappointments and reverses made the First Consul wish for peace. At Amiens this short-lived peace was signed. France retained Belgium and the left bank of the Rhine, and got back her West Indian Islands. Holland received once more the Cape of Good Hope. England kept Ceylon. But Napoleon never meant peace; all he intended was a short breathing time, that he might take an important step at home, and gird himself for a more brilliant career of victory abroad.

March 27, 1802 A.D.

All France was wild with delight at the dazzling glory of the First Consul's victories, and the kindness of his rule. When the enthusiasm had reached the boiling point, a decree of the Senate appeared, proclaiming Bonaparte First Consul for life The votes of the people all over the land ratified the change.

Aug. 2, 1802 A.D.

One work he did at this time, which half redeems his memory, in France at least, from the red cloud that blurs its glory. He set a number of his best lawyers, with Cambacères at their head, to arrange the laws of his adopted land. Six distinct codes, published at various times, are loosely grouped together as the *Code Napoléon*. Of these, the Civil Code is undoubtedly the best; and France still enjoys the valued legacy. In the schools, instruction took, as might be expected, an almost exclusively military turn. Latin, mathematics, and drill were the great aims of the teacher's work. The First Consul laughed metaphysics and kindred studies to utter scorn. No better proof to him of time well spent at school than the ability to fence with skill, to point a gun, or sketch out the map of a position.

Then, with studied insults, he drove England again into war. In May, 1803, the British Government seized all French vessels in British harbors, an act which Napoleon retaliated by throwing into prison all Englishmen found travelling in France. French soldiers then rapidly overran Hanover, and prepared to invade Naples. At the same time the First Consul began to muster his legions and fleets for the invasion of England. This was his grandest design ; but he never was able to cross the narrow strait. With one hundred and sixty thousand blue-jackets standing by her guns at sea, and double that number of red-coats lining her southern shores, Britain stood on her guard. The whole scheme vanished into nothing. Eighteen hundred years before, a mad Emperor of Rome had set his legions to pick shells on that same low beach, where the "Army of England" lay encamped, and had then celebrated his conquest of the white cliffed island by a splendid triumph at Rome. Bonaparte could not stoop to folly like this. But he turned away in fear ; and leaving his flat-bottomed boats at Boulogne, he marched his soldiers towards the Danube.

But before he won there his greatest victory, he had perpetrated his greatest crime, and reached his highest eminence. A plot against his life was detected by his sleepless police. Two generals, Pichegru and Moreau, were involved in the affair. While Pichegru lay in prison, he was found strangled ; Moreau went into exile. But an innocent man fell a victim to a vague suspicion of the same kind. His true crime was only that he was a Bourbon. Seized in Baden, the young Duke d'Enghien was hurried to the castle of Vincennes. There, after a mock trial, he was shot by torch-light in the darkness of a wild March morning, and buried as he lay, in his bloody and bullet-torn clothes (March 21). Within two months the First Consul was declared, by the Senate and the Tribunate, Emperor of the French. The votes of the people being taken, only about four thousand names were registered against his elevation. He was too impatient to wait for the collection of the votes. On the 18th of May he assumed the imperial name at St. Cloud, and on the following day he created eighteen of his best generals Marshals of the Empire. **May 18, 1804 A.D.**

The Pope, Pius VII., was invited to Paris to crown the newly-elected emperor. At Notre Dame, on the 2d of December, the ceremony of coronation was performed. The pope blessed the crown, and Napoleon, taking it from the altar, placed it on his own head. Her husband's hand then crowned Josephine as empress.

The republics of Italy were then all merged into a kingdom, of which Bonaparte was invited to become king. It pleased him well. Indeed, he must have foreseen and worked toward this ancient end of French ambition. In the Cathedral of Milan (May 26, 1805), he assumed the iron

crown of Lombardy, saying, as he placed the rusty rim upon his temples, "God has given it to me; woe to him who shall attempt to lay hands on it!" He then named Eugene Beauharnais, his step-son, as his vice-roy in Italy.

England, Russia, Austria, and Sweden were now united against this little man, who threatened so seriously to disturb the balance of power in Europe. He had broken faith with all, and it was clear that he meditated new and mightier conquests. The first great blow was struck by the English Nelson, who shattered the navies of France and Spain in the great fight off Trafalgar (October 21, 1805), when he found a warrior's death on the quarter-deck of his ship, the *Victory*. But on land the French eagles were brilliantly triumphant. Mack, the Austrian leader, was hemmed in at Ulm, and forced to surrender with nearly thirty thousand men (October 17, 1805). In less than a month the victorious French marched into Vienna, from which Francis II. had fled to Olmutz. And then came the crowning triumph of the campaign.

At Austerlitz, a Moravian village, the rival armies faced each other,—eighty thousand Russians and Austrians pitted against a nearly equal number of French veterans. A frosty sun shone bright upon the yet unsullied battle-ground, as three emperors—Alexander of Russia, Francis of Austria, and Napoleon of the French—rode up the heights to watch the great game played out, and direct the movements of the day. France and Russia were to cross bayonets for the first time at Austerlitz. Cannon thundered, steel glanced, whirlwinds of cavalry swept across the field; and all the terrors and fury of battle began to rage. The Russian lines were too long and thin. At once Napoleon saw the fault, and like lightning formed his plan. Pushing in the centre, and breaking up the wings, he attacked the fragments of the line separately, and swept them in flying crowds from the field. In vain the Russian Guard strove to turn the tide of battle. It was a total rout. Then began the horrors of pursuit. A crowd of poor wretches were fleeing over the ice which sheeted a neighboring lake, when the guns of the victors opened fire upon them, and they sank through the ripped and splintered floes. The loss of the allies exceeded thirty thousand; that of the French amounted to fully twelve thousand. The Treaty of Presburg, between France and Austria, was signed on the 26th of December.

Dec. 2, 1805 A.D.

One result of Napoleon's triumph, was a graeat chnge in the constitution of Germany. The Electors of Bavaria and Würtemberg were made kings; and many of the smaller states were formed, by the victor at Austerlitz, into the Confederation of the Rhine. Already, in 1804, Austria had been declared an empire, and the Emperor Francis II. of Ger-

many had begun to call himself Emperor of Austria. This severance of Austria from Germany was formally completed in 1806.

The Emperor of the French then began to give away kingdoms. Seizing Naples early in 1806, he made his brother Joseph king. Turning the Batavian Republic into a Kingdom of Holland, he placed its crown on the head of his brother Louis. His brother-in-law, Murat, famed as the most dashing cavalry officer in Europe, became Grand Duke of Berg.

But this year is most remarkable for the complete prostration of Prussia. She had been playing a double part; and never has man or nation done so without suffering just and heavy punishment. Although she professed to be the friend of England, she made no scruple about receiving Hanover from the emperor who was England's bitterest foe. Napoleon now changed his tone, having no longer any need for keeping this truckling power in good humor.

In two great battles—Auerstadt and Jena—fought upon the same day, he utterly crushed the military power with which, but half a century ago, the Great Frederic had wrought such marvels. Prussia lay writhing at his feet. **Oct. 14, 1806 A.D.**

From the Prussian capital, which he entered in triumph a week after the bloody day of Jena, he launched the Berlin Decrees. Thunderbolts he meant them to be, scathing to the roots the oak of British commerce; but the petty squibs fizzed harmlessly at the foot of the great, unshaken tree.

The British islands were declared to be in a state of blockade. The Continent of Europe was to hold no correspondence, to transact no business whatever with Britain. British manufactures and produce were declared contraband. British property was a lawful prize. Letters to and from the shores of Britain were to be kept and opened at the post-offices. The defeat of these tremendous decrees was complete and very amusing. "Artillery, horse, and infantry were always defeated when opposed to his battalions; but printed ginghams were irresistible. There were conspiracies beyond the reach of his spies in every parlor, where the daughters were dressed in colored muslins; and cloths, cutlery, and earthenware were smuggled wherever an English vessel could float."*

We next find Russia facing the "Little Corporal," as his bronzed grenadiers loved to call him in their stories by the midnight watch-fire. It was in the depth of winter that the armies met on the field of Eylau. It was a drawn battle; but Napoleon, camping for eight days upon the reddened snow, claimed a great victory. But there was no doubt about the battle of Friedland, fought on the 14th of the following June. The Russians were driven across the Aller, with the loss of sixty thousand men; and the Czar Alexander sought a **Feb. 8, 1807 A.D.**

* White's History of France.

peace, which was concluded at Tilsit, on the Niemen. Prussia, who had plucked up heart again to dare French bayonets, had got her share of the beating, and was a partner in the humiliation of the peace.

The reaction now began. Having driven the royal house of Braganza from Portugal to Brazil, and having flung the Bourbons from the throne of Spain, he set his brother Joseph up in place of the latter, as King of Spain. Murat was promoted to fill Joseph's vacant throne at Naples. The Spaniards drew their knives, called in British aid, and the Peninsula War began.

1808 A.D. The story of this war may be read in British history. Vimiera was its great opening field; and Vittoria (1813) the decisive triumph of its great hero, Wellington. The war in the Peninsula was conducted by Napoleon's marshals, for greater interests occupied himself at the heart of Europe. He paid a short visit to Spain in the first year of the struggle, going, as he said, to rid the Peninsula of "the hideous presence of the English leopards." He beat the Spaniards at Tudela, entered Madrid in triumph (Dec. 4), and tried without success to cut off the retreating army of Moore. Then news of an Austrian war recalled him to France, after an absence of scarcely three months.

Austria now mustered half a million soldiers, bent upon washing out, in French blood, the stains which Marengo and Austerlitz had left upon her banner. All around her frontiers and within her boundaries a spirit had begun to burn, which boded no good to Napoleon. Major Schill (soon slain at Stralsund) drilled his corps of Prussian volunteers; and Hofer, the inn-keeper of Tyrol (afterwards shot at Mantua) roused the chamois-hunters to a patriotic war. There was no time to lose. Napoleon, dashing over the Rhine, beat the Archduke Charles at Eckmuhl, bombarded Vienna, and carried his eagles again into the splendid streets which had witnessed their triumphant march not four years before; and all this in nine days (April 3–12). He then crossed the Danube to the left bank, and fought there the indecisive battle of Aspern. The Austrians broke down the bridge behind him, by throwing huge logs of timber into the swollen river.

So he was obliged to shelter his army in the island of Lobau, where he lay for six weeks. From this retreat he issued to fight the great

July 5, 1809 A.D. battle of Wagram. It was a terrific day. The thunder of the sky almost drowned the peals of gunpowder, as the armies rushed to the charge. All the roof-tops of Vienna were crowded with pale, excited men and women, gazing on a sight such as has seldom been seen. Four hundred thousand men were on the field. By mid-day the Austrian centre were driven in, and Francis, who had watched the battle from a hill, rode madly from the scene of slaughter and defeat. Peace followed, as a matter of course. The

Treaty of Schönbrunn, signed on the 14th of the following October, yielded to the conqueror territory containing more than two millions of people.

Yet Napoleon did not despise Austria. Far from it. It was indeed great glory for the *parvenu* to humble to the dust an ancient house like that of Hapsburg. But he had still that hankering after ancient name and lineage which often disfigures the character of a self-made man. Divorcing the faithful and loving Josephine, whose only faults were that she was a plebeian and had no children, he married **March 11, 1810** A.D. the Archduchess Maria Louisa of Austria, in the hope that this daughter of the Hapsburgs would bear him a son. A year afterwards his hope was realized. On the 20th of March, 1811, a son was born to him, whom he created at once King of Rome. But this King of Rome, better known as the Duc de Reichstadt, was not destined to hold the sceptre of France. Upon the fall of his father in 1814, he retired to the Austrian court, and died at Schönbrunn in 1832.

The year which preceded the Austrian marriage had witnessed strange things in Rome. When Napoleon annexed to his far-spreading empire the Papal States, the poor pope issued a bull of excommunication against the sacrilegious usurper. Napoleon, minding this once terrible instrument no more than the bite of a gnat, took a still more daring step. Sending his gendarmes one summer night to scale the walls of the palace on the Quirinal, he carried the pope a captive to Savona, whence he removed him in 1812 to Fontainebleau.

The position of Napoleon at this height of his power, (1811) is well worth marking. The French Empire, over which he ruled, extended from the borders of Denmark to those of Naples. Holland, Naples, and Westphalia were ruled by his kinsmen. His brother Joseph held an insecure throne at Madrid. Bernadotte, one of his generals, had been chosen Crown-Prince of Sweden. As Protector of the Confederation of the Rhine, he held the German States in subjection, and he did the same kind office for the Helvetic Confederation, into which he had formed the cantons of Switzerland. Prussia and Austria crouched at his feet, and Russia seemed his firm ally. In four years all was changed. The magician's wand was broken, and his magnificent theatre of action had shrunk into a little house and garden, on a barren rock far out in the tropic seas.

The miserable Russian campaign of 1812 was but the beginning of disasters. In defiance of the advice of old and wise counsellors, he declared war against the czar, who had opened his ports to British goods. Assembling a magnificent army of more than half a million be- **1812** A.D. tween the Vistula and the Niemen, he crossed the latter stream in the middle of June. The Russians had mustered to the number of about three hundred thousand men. But they wisely trusted

more to their climate than to their bayonets or their cannon. Falling back before the invading army, they lured Napoleon into the heart of a bleak and barren land, where his horses died for want of forage, and his soldiers sickened with ague and rheumatism. Still his heart never failed him, for he believed that he was destined to march triumphant into St. Petersburg, as he had marched into Vienna and Madrid.

On he pressed through Wilna, and up to the walls of Smolensk, against which he turned all his force. A heavy cannonade made little
Aug. 16. impression on the solid walls ; but the city was set on fire by his shells ; and in the night the Russians fled from its burning streets. The march of Napoleon to Moscow, where he meant to take up his winter quarters, was checked for a little at Borodino. There, Kutusoff faced the French. The armies numbered about one hundred and thirty thousand men each, and had between them over one thousand cannon.

From early morning till nightfall the battle raged, and then the Russians fell back in unbroken order towards Moscow. Ninety
Sept. 7. thousand men were slain or wounded on that terrible day. A week later, the army of Napoleon saw the longed-for haven. The towers of the Kremlin, and the fantastic spires of Moscow, linked together with gilt chains, lay below them to the east. But when they entered the city, it was silent and empty. Next night a fire
Sept. 14. broke out, then another and another, until the city was a sea of flame. Napoleon and his troops could not stay. He indeed returned for a while to the Kremlin ; but when peace was refused by the enraged czar, there was nothing left for the baffled emperor but to hurry back to France.

The retreat began on the 19th of October. The Russians followed fast, harassing the fugitives at every step. But worse than Cossacks were the snow and the wind. The land spread before them one vast winding-sheet of drifted snow. The blinding flakes fell thick around them as they stumbled on. They often marched between files of their comrades who had been frozen to death. Harassed by repeated attacks, they struggled with constantly thinning ranks through Smolensk, where they found a little food, on to the banks of the Beresina. There they were frightfully cut up as they made the passage of the wintry stream. Twenty-four thousand were either drowned in the icy water or smashed with Russian shot.

At Smorgoni (December 5) Napoleon abandoned the wretched phantom of the grand army, and set out in a sledge for Paris. Only a few thousand gaunt and frost-bitten men, more like famished wolves than human beings, mustered on the Vistula after this tragic campaign. It is

calculated that one hundred and twenty-five thousand perished in battle; that one hundred and thirty-two thousand died of fatigue, hunger, and cold; and that one hundred and ninety-three thousand were made prisoners. Seldom has so fearful a blow fallen upon human pride.

The beaten conqueror reached the Tuileries about midnight on the 18th of December. He knew that the struggle was now to be for life or death. It gives some idea of the amazing hold which he had upon the heart of France, to read that in four months he was at the head of three hundred and fifty thousand men. And he needed every bayonet there, for all Europe was arrayed against him. The banks of the Elbe became the scene of war. The victories of Lutzen and Bautzen, both won in May, were of little use to stem the great tide of enemies which had set in towards Paris. A conference at Prague decided nothing, but threw the weight of Austria into the coalition against Napoleon. Battle after battle was fought, until he made his final stand at Leipsic. **16th and 18th Oct. 1813** A.D. There two bloody battles took place, in the latter of which a body of ten thousand Saxons deserted the French lines, and so weakened Napoleon, that next day he began to fall back upon the Rhine with a broken and disordered force. In the same year the great battle of Vittoria (June 21, 1813) had driven the French armies out of the Peninsula.

The dawn of the following year saw a great allied host on the march for the French frontiers. Wellington was in the south of France; and the emperor found even old friends and fellow-soldiers—Murat and Bernadotte—arrayed against him. He summoned all his energies to meet the crisis. For more than two months, with a greatly inferior force, he faced his foes, winning many victories, and enduring with unbroken courage many checks. At last he made a false move. He dashed to the rear of the allies, in the hope that they would retreat in terror. Instead of this, however, they marched at once upon Paris, which was surrendered without a struggle by Marmont. On the following day the allied sovereigns led their troops in triumph along the crowded Boulevards. Napoleon, who came up too late to save his capital, rode away to Fontainebleau. In two days he was deposed by a decree of the Senate; on the 4th of April he signed the deed of abdication, which stripped him of the French and Italian crowns; and on the 20th of the same month, having spoken a few sad words of farewell to the Old Guard in the court-yard of Fontainebleau, he set out for the little island of Elba, where he was henceforth, as all the world thought, to enjoy the name of Emperor and a revenue of six million francs. The British frigate *Undaunted* carried him from Frejus to his new home. A few days after Napoleon reached Elba his faithful Josephine died. **Mar. 31, 1814** A.D.

The Bourbon dynasty was now restored in the person of Louis XVIII., the brother of the guillotined king. But the Bourbons knew as little how to rule as they had known before the terrible days of the Revolution. The remnant of the exiled noblesse came back to France, clamoring loudly for their lost estates, upon which new owners had long been peaceably settled. Louis carried out the same line of action on a greater scale. He reclaimed everything that had ever belonged to the crown; and although he gave the people a Charter, which guaranteed eight great privileges,* it was given with immensely patronizing airs, and its provisions were soon found to be empty forms in the eyes of the king and his court. The disbanded troops of Napoleon filled every village in France, sneering at the host of foreign troops, who were fed on the fat of the land, that the Bourbon might sit safely on his throne. Men began to talk through all France of the violets of next spring; and the innocent little blossom hid treason under its sweet leaves. A certain Corporal Violet would come, perhaps, in spring. Ladies who longed for his coming wore violets in their bonnets; and little pictures of the flower were sold, which revealed beneath their lifted leaves the face of the banished emperor. All this foretold a change, which speedily came.

Napoleon spent in all about ten months in Elba (May 3, 1814, to February 26, 1815). He had around him there some of his old soldiers, who were ready to dare anything in his cause. Letters from France told him of the Bourbon misrule and of the unquenched love for his magic name which was alive throughout the land. He was seen to grow more thoughtful as the days went by. The works of engineering, in which he had at first taken some interest, had lost their charm. A great plan was ceaselessly shaping itself out in his brain.

The winter of 1814–15 was spent by a Congress of the Allied Powers at Vienna, in trying to restore order among the states of Europe. We are told that "they consulted wisely all day, and danced indefatigably all night." This agreeable round of business sweetened with pleasure was rudely disturbed. Like the bursting of a shell on their council-table came the news that Napoleon was in France.

Slipping away from Elba in a brig called the *Inconstant*, he had landed after three days' sailing in the Gulf of San Juan, near Cannes. He had with him one thousand men—six hundred of the Old Guard, and four hundred Poles and Corsicans. At Grenoble seven hundred men deserted the Bourbon banner for the tricolor. Marshal Ney, who had promised on

* These were—1. Equality before the law; 2. Admission to all employments; 3. Unity of administration; 4. Representative government; 5. Taxation only by the votes of the representatives; 6. Individual liberty; 7. Liberty of worship; 8. Liberty of the press.

leaving Paris that he would bring the daring little emperor back with him in an iron cage, could not resist the old memories which the sight of the well-known face and the sound of the old cry, "*Vive l'Empereur*," called up within his breast. Onward to Paris Napoleon pressed. Louis XVIII. set out for Ghent; and on the same evening, with the clatter of horse hoofs and the flash of drawn sabres, a carriage dashed up to the Tuileries, and the Emperor Napoleon once more sat down to work in his little study. And there he worked night and day with most tremendous energy. **Mar. 20, 1815 A.D.**

He looked narrowly into every department of the government. He agreed to all the provisions of the Charter, for he saw clearly it was no time to breathe a word of despotic rule. And, most important of all to a man in his perilous situation, he strained every nerve to raise a great army. By the middle of June he had mustered one hundred and twenty-five thousand men, and with these he opened the campaign, which was destined to come so speedily to an end.

Nearly a million of troops had gathered at the summons of the Vienna Congress. But of these only the British and the Prussians, both of whom lay in Belgium, ready to unite and march upon Paris, gave Napoleon immediate concern. If he could only beat these closer foes, he would have time to meet the more distant armies upon the Rhine. He therefore moved towards Charleroi on the 15th of June. Ney, Soult, and Grouchy were his marshals. On the following day (the 16th) he gave battle in two places—himself driving Blücher from Ligny, while Ney made an unsuccessful attack upon a body of English troops at Quatre Bras. On the 17th, Wellington, in consequence of Blücher's retreat, fell back to Waterloo.

And therewas fought the greatest battle of the nineteenth century, resulting, after the strife had lasted through all the length of a mid-summer day, in the utter defeat of Napoleon. His last hope on that day was in the invincible Old Guard, whom he held in reserve, until he heard that the Prussians were advancing to the aid of Wellington. But when he saw these favorite veterans broken by the withering fire of the British, he turned pale, and crying out, "They are mixed together," he rode fast from the field. **June 18, 1815 A.D.**

When he got to Paris and saw the temper of the nation, he knew that his day of rule was past. On the 22d of June he signed his second abdication, which was in favor of his son. But the Allies, who entered Paris on the 7th of July, annulled this deed, and reinstated Louis XVIII. as King of France.

Napoleon then went to Rochefort with the view of escaping to America;

but this he could not do, because the British cruisers watched all the coast. On the 15th of July he went on board the British ship *Bellerophon* (Captain Maitland), having previously written to the Prince Regent to say, that "he came, like Themistocles, to claim the hospitality of the British people, and the protection of their laws." The ship sailed to Torbay, where Napoleon received word that the British government had resolved to send him to St. Helena.

The *Northumberland* carried him out to that lonely rock, which he reached on the 15th of October, 1815. And there he lived, first at Briars and then at Longwood, for nearly six years, quarrelling with the governor, and dreaming of the glorious past. In 1818 his health began to fail, and on the 5th of May, 1821, he died of an ulcer in the stomach. His body, laid at first in Slane's Valley, near a clump of weeping willows, was borne to France in the winter of 1840, and placed with brilliant ceremony in the Hôtel des Invalides.

The character of Napoleon Bonaparte is a threadbare theme. Never has the world seen ambition so brilliantly successful, so frightfully reckless of human life, or so miserable in its tragic fall.

LATEST SOVEREIGNS OF FRANCE.

	A.D.
Napoleon I. (Emperor of the French)	1804
Louis XVIII. (Comte de Provence)	1814
Charles X. (Comte d'Artois)	1824
Louis Philippe (Duc d'Orleans)	1830
Republic	1848
Napoleon III. (Emperor)	1852

CHAPTER III.

CONTINENTAL EUROPE SINCE 1815.

Changed life—Second Peace of Paris—State of Spain—Of Portugal—Second French Revolution—Louis Napoleon—His attempts on France—Third French Revolution—Louis Napoleon emperor—The Netherlands—Austrians in Italy—Pio Nono—Greek War of Independence—Hungarian struggle—Poland.

Nearly sixty years of the nineteenth century have gone by. Of these years the first fifteen were filled with the story of Napoleon, around whom circled nearly all that was worthy to live in history. Since his fall the years have been marked by many changes. The motto of Continental history has been "Revolution;" that of our home-story the milder word, "Reform." It has been a time, too, of wonderful inventions and discov-

eries. To cull a few from the long and brilliant list, have we not locomotives on our railways, gas in our streets and houses, electric wires speeding our thoughts through air and sea, chloroform banishing our pains, and the sun himself taking our pictures with an accuracy that the camel's-hair pencil never knew? It is an old and trite way of putting the case, but there cannot be a stronger than to ask what would the old man who died in 1799 think of our every-day life, if he could spend a day with us now in this present year 1872.

The Second Peace of Paris was signed by France and the Allies on the 20th of November, 1815. Its terms were on the whole unfavorable to France, for her frontier was contracted to the old line of 1790. She had to pay £28,000,000 sterling to meet the cost of the war, and a still larger sum for the mischief she had done to her neighbors in the days of the Revolution; while all the bronzes and pictures and marbles which Napoleon had gathered into the Louvre, were to be sent back to the cities whence they had been stolen. At the same time two other treaties were concluded—one by Austria, Russia, Prussia, and England, shutting out the Bonaparte family forever from the throne of France; the other, called the Holy Alliance, binding Russia, Austria, and Prussia, "to aid one another, in conformity with Holy Scripture, on every occasion."

SPAIN.—After the expulsion of Joseph Bonaparte in 1814, Ferdinand VII. was restored to the throne of Spain. But it seemed impossible for Bourbons to reign except as despots. Against this the Spanish spirit rebelled; and in 1820 a rising of the soldiers forced Ferdinand to restore to the people the Constitution of 1812, which was almost republican. This was the opposite extreme, and did not mend the matter; for the republican party, when they felt the power in their hands, used it anything but well. It was resolved, therefore, at a Congress of European powers, held at Verona, to re-establish the authority of the Spanish king.

In 1823, a French force of one hundred thousand men, under the Duke d'Angoulême, entered Spain, and with little trouble overthrew the Constitutionalists. The king then renewed all the machinery of despotism; and so he continued to rule, until, in 1833, he died. His daughter, Isabella II., being then only three years old, the queen-mother, Christina, was appointed regent. But Don Carlos, the brother of the dead king, claimed the throne, and a desolating civil war began to rage. Some aid from Britain was given to the queen, whose cause triumphed in 1840. Almost ever since, Spain has been in a troubled state. In 1854, a revolution broke out, of which the chief centres were Barcelona and Madrid. Then a National Junta was established; and the queen-mother, who, driven from Spain in 1840, had returned in 1844, was again obliged to leave the land.

PORTUGAL.—When, in 1807, Napoleon issued one of his haughty edicts, declaring that the House of Braganza had ceased to reign over Portugal, the royal family of that land crossed the Atlantic to Brazil, where the Regent John continued to live even after he became king in 1816. This absenteeism greatly displeased the people of Portugal, who, catching fire from their Spanish neighbors, rose and established a new Constitution. In 1821, the court returned from Brazil, which was soon finally severed from the crown of Portugal, Dom Pedro, the son of John, becoming Emperor of Brazil in 1826. By thus choosing the crown of Brazil, Pedro left that of Portugal to his little daughter, Maria II. But her uncle Miguel usurped the throne, and a civil war ensued, in which the British helped Pedro and his daughter. The defeat of Miguel's navy in 1833 off Cape St. Vincent by Admiral Napier brought the war to a close, throwing Lisbon into the hands of Pedro. Donna Maria reigned from 1834, when she was declared of age by the Cortes, until her death, which happened in 1853. Her son, Pedro V. then became king.

FRANCE.—The history of France since 1815 is full of change. When Louis XVIII. died, in 1824, his brother became king with the title of Charles X. This king, like all his Bourbon kindred and our own unhappy Stuarts, had a mania for despotic rule. He could not—poor blind king—read the lessons written in French blood upon those pages of the national story which had not long been closed. In 1827 he disbanded the Civic Guard. In 1830, aided by a minister, Polignac, as blind and foolish as himself, he issued three ordinances, which kindled the Second French Revolution. These were:—1. That the liberty of the press was suspended; 2. That the Chamber of Deputies was dissolved before it had met; 3. That the elections were to be made by the prefects, who were all creatures of the government.

On the morning of the 26th of July, Charles went out to hunt rabbits at St. Cloud, little dreaming of a brooding storm. Next day many of the morning newspapers were published in defiance of the royal edict, upon which the police broke into the offices and smashed the presses. Throughout that day the streets were crowded with men and women, so angry and excited that Marmont thought it best about four o'clock to put the troops under arms. There was some skirmishing; but at night all seemed so quiet that Marmont, thrown off his guard, sent word to the king that the riot was subdued.

That night the street lamps were broken, and the paving-stones torn up to form barricades. The 28th dawned upon a more stirring
1830 scene. Men, wearing the uniform of the disbanded Guards,
A.D. hurried along with the tricolor cockade in their hats. A sharp fire of musketry from the barricades and the windows of the

houses drove back the soldiers everywhere, while paving-stones rained on them from the roofs. Point after point was won by the people, until the night set in. Next day (29th) the desertion of some regiments to the insurgents strengthened the cause of Revolution so much that before four o'clock in the afternoon Paris was in the hands of the people. A provisional government was appointed; and in a few days Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, the son of Egalité, was elected King of the French. Charles took refuge at Holyrood Palace, Edinburgh, where he lived for some time. He died at Grätz, in Austria, in 1836.

The reign of Louis Philippe lasted from 1830 to 1848. The man whom he would have dreaded most, if he could have foreseen the future, was Louis Napoleon, since the Emperor of the French. This son of Louis Bonaparte, once King of Holland, was born at Paris in 1808. His mother, Hortense, went after the fall of Napoleon to Switzerland, and while her boys were growing up, she used to spend the summers there, and the winters at Rome.

After the Revolution of 1830, Louis Napoleon wrote to Louis Philippe for leave to return to France, offering to carry a musket in the ranks as a common private. This being refused, he joined the revolutionary party in Italy, and saw some service against the papal troops; but was soon obliged to settle down to a quiet literary life in Switzerland. The death of the Duc de Reichstadt gave a new hope to his life. Thenceforward he devoted himself to the restoration of the Napoleon dynasty in France. His works, some of which were written in this Swiss seclusion, all bear the stamp of his great purpose. Chief of these are his "Political Reviews," "Idées Napoléoniennes," "Reflections upon Switzerland," and "Manual of Artillery."

When the time seemed ripe for the execution of his plans, Louis Napoleon came to Baden, and there met with Colonel Vaudry, who commanded the artillery in Strasbourg. On the 30th of October, 1836, Vaudry assembled his men in the square of the artillery barracks at Strasbourg, and presented to them Louis as the nephew of the late emperor. A cheer was raised, and all seemed well; but the other colonels of the garrison were not so enthusiastic. Then came hesitation among the soldiers, fatal to the design. Louis was arrested, and all hope was gone. It did not seem a very formidable affair to the French government, and the only sentence passed was banishment from France.

Louis went to America, where he travelled much both in the northern and southern Continents. The illness of his mother, who died in 1837, called him back to Europe. He stayed a while in Switzerland; but, when he found Louis Philippe demanding from the Swiss that he should be banished from their cantons, he went to England. There he lived for about two

years, until, growing tired of inaction, he resolved again to try his fortune on French soil. With Count Montholon, fifty other friends, and a tame eagle, he sailed from Margate in a hired steam-boat, and landed on the 6th of August, 1840, at Boulogne. His first move was to the barracks. But the soldiers would not surrender; and the crest-fallen invaders, after a few shots, made for their steamer again. Before they could get on board, however, most of them were arrested, Louis Napoleon among the rest. He was tried before the Peers, defended by Berryer with great eloquence, but sentenced to perpetual imprisonment. Ham was the fortress chosen as his prison; and there he lay until 1846, when, aided by Dr. Conneau, he managed to escape in the dress of a workman. England became again his home, until the great change of 1848 opened for him a new theatre of action.

Louis Philippe was no favorite with the French people, especially after the death of his son, the Duke of Orleans, who was thrown from his carriage in 1842. Murmurs grew loud and deep against the corruptions of the government. The crisis came in 1848, when a reform banquet, appointed to take place on the 22d of February, which was the birth-day of the great American, Washington, was forbidden by the government. That evening there was a riot round the tavern where the banquet was to have taken place. The next day (23d) barricades were thrown up, and some firing was heard.

Louis, alarmed, dismissed the Guizot ministry, and on the 24th issued a proclamation that Thiers and Odillon Barrot were to take the direction of affairs. It was too late. The troops gave up their muskets to the mob, the Tuileries were broken into, and a great bonfire was made of the throne and the royal carriages. Louis Philippe hurried through the private garden away to St. Cloud, to Versailles, and soon over to England. There he died at Claremont (August 26, 1850).

France was now a republic once more; but the tumults of the change were not over. The Red Republicans, or violent democratic party, made several efforts to gain the upper hand, and renew the horrors of the guillotine. Especially, in June, there was a fierce struggle lasting five days, during which many thousands were slain in the streets of Paris. The firmness of General Cavaignac restored order and saved France. A new Constitution, vesting the executive power in a President of the Republic, who should be chosen by all the people, and should hold office for four years, was adopted on the 4th of November; and in December, Louis Napoleon, who had been in June elected deputy for the department of Seine, and had taken his seat, in September, on the benches of the National Assembly, was, by the votes of five millions and a half of the French people, elected President of the Republic.

He never agreed well with the Assembly, and it was soon manifest that one or other must be crushed. One night the president was in remarkably gay spirits in the brilliant ball-room of the Tuileries, chatting and laughing with all his guests. The carriages had scarcely ceased to roll away, when bands of soldiers began to move silently through the streets. Next morning Paris was in the president's hands; and the leaders of the Opposition, who had been seized in their beds, were fast locked within the walls of Vincennes. **Dec. 2, 1851** A.D.

On all the walls of Paris a decree of Napoleon was posted, proclaiming that the Assembly was dissolved, that universal suffrage was restored, and that Paris was under martial law. This was the *coup d'état* of December. On the 4th, some eight hundred of those who rose to resist the blow, fell by the bullets of the soldiers. And on the 14th of the following January, a new Constitution placed in the hands of Louis Napoleon the government of France for ten years. The cry "*Vive l' Empereur!*" now began, after a silence of nearly forty years, to be heard again in France; and, after wisely allowing the idea to leaven the public mind for nearly a year, the nephew of the little Corsican ascended the steps of an imperial throne, as Napoleon III., Emperor of the French (December, 1852).

Since then, eight years have passed with no marked change in France. The Emperor married Eugénie, Comtesse de Téba, in January, 1853, and his son is now sixteen years old. The share he took in the Russian war needs no remark; and all must still remember the rapidly shifting scenes of that short campaign in the summer of 1859, when the Emperor Napoleon in person led the French armies across the Ticino, won on the soil of Lombardy the brilliant fields of Magenta and Solferino, and concluded the mysterious peace of Villafranca. Savoy and Nice have since been annexed to France; and Lombardy, Tuscany, Modena, Parma, and the Romagna, form part of the new Italian kingdom.

Holland and Belgium.—After the abdication of Louis Napoleon in 1810, the Netherlands were annexed to the French empire; and so continued until 1813, when the people rose, shook off the French yoke, and recalled the House of Orange to be their rulers. In 1815 the seven northern and the ten southern provinces were united under William I., into the Kingdom of the Netherlands. But the Belgians were kept down with too strict a hand, and when the French Revolution of 1830 took place, the men of Brussels, fired by the example of their neighbors, turned on the Dutch soldiers, and after four days' fighting, drove them from the city (August, 1830). Belgium was then declared free, and the people looked round them for a king. The Duc de Nemours, second son of Louis Philippe, had the first offer of the newly-erected throne; but the old French king refused it for his son. The crown was then offered to Prince

Leopold of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, who has worn it ever since. Antwerp was the only place still held by the Dutch. But a French army of sixty-five thousand men entered Belgium to enforce the will of the five great European Powers, that had acknowledged the independence of Belgium, and Antwerp fell after a month's siege. Belgium has thriven rapidly since this great change.

ITALY.—Austria, after the Congress of Vienna, hung like a millstone round the neck of Italy. The deadly weight was felt from the Alps to Spartivento. Austrians swarmed in the basin of the Po, and creatures of Austria wore the coronets of Tuscany, Modena, and Parma. When Pio Nono became pope in 1846, he began to make some useful changes among the people of the Papal States. The Austrians, alarmed at any signs of growing freedom, entered Ferrara in 1847, and all central Italy rose in arms against the tyrants. The following year saw the flame of revolution kindled in Lombardy. Radetsky and his Austrian soldiers were driven from Milan; and Charles Albert, King of Sardinia, took the field against them. But the hour of triumph was short. Radetsky soon reconquered Lombardy and invaded Sardinia. Venice, too, had revolted, and had proclaimed the Republic of St. Mark, but was retaken by the Austrians. There was war also in Sicily. In 1848 the well-meaning but feeble pope had to flee to Gaëta, and his people proclaimed a Roman Republic. This, however, was overthrown by a French army under Oudinot, by whom Rome was besieged and taken in the summer of 1849.

The pope was then restored to his chair, but not to the hearts of the Romans. The great changes wrought in the fortunes of Italy during the year 1859 have been already glanced at. An Italian kingdom now exists, embracing Lombardy, Tuscany, Parma, Modena, the Romagna, and all Sardinia, except Savoy and Nice. Of Italian soil Austria now holds only Venetia. What may become of Sicily is yet in the future. The capture of Palermo, its capital, by the daring Garibaldi, is the last great event in the eventful history of Italy.

While Germany, Prussia, and Denmark have been more or less convulsed by revolutionary movements, especially in the troubled years 1848 and 1849, Sweden and Norway have been enjoying comparative calm.

The Greek war of independence, and the noble though unsuccessful struggle of the Hungarians against the rule of Austria, are the great events of the nineteenth century which remain to be noticed.

GREECE.—For more than three centuries the Turks had ground Greece in an unhappy bondage. The crushed worm turned at last. In March, 1821, Major Ypsilanti, a Greek holding the commission of the Russian Czar, roused his countrymen to arms in Moldavia. He was met by wholesale butchery; his army was cut to pieces; he fled to Trieste, where he

was seized by the Austrians. The rage of the Turks was specially directed against the Greek clergy, who were murdered by dozens. But the fire of revolution was kindled, and it spread fast. A ten years' war began. In 1822 the Greeks met at Epidaurus to proclaim a provisional government under Alexander Mavrocordato. Vainly the Turks strove to quench the flames in blood. The fair island of Scio was wasted with fire and sword; but this only roused the Greeks to greater fury. With fire-ships they greatly crippled the navy of the Turks, and on land they won the strong fortress of Napoli di Romania.

Foremost among the patriot-Greeks were the brave Suliotes, a mountain tribe, whose leader, Marco Botzaris, met a soldier's death while repelling a Turkish attempt to break through the Isthmus of Corinth into the Morea. Byron flung his wasted energies into the Greek cause, and many of his songs, written under this inspiration, stir the heart like the blast of a trumpet. But his early death at Missolonghi, in 1824, deprived Greece of a devoted friend. Up to this time the government of Greece had been conducted with much disorder and irregularity.

But now order began to develop itself. Taxes were justly levied; the public credit was firmly established; justice was administered; the liberty of the press was allowed; and education was promoted. To these good things there was, however, much opposition. A civil war arose, which greatly hampered the movements of the patriots. Torn by dissensions, the Greek councils and armies lost power. An addition to the Turkish force came from Egypt, under Ibrahim Pacha, who landed in the Morea and began at once a career of victory. The fall of Missolonghi, in April, 1826, seemed to lay the hopes of Greece in the dust forever.

Yet this very hour of black darkness heralded the dawn of a new and brighter day. Christian Europe was roused from her neutrality. In the year 1827, three leading powers—Britain, France, and Russia—signed at London a treaty for the pacification of Greece. It was submitted to the Divan at Constantinople, but was haughtily rejected. Matters, indeed, looked bad for Greece. The Turks held all eastern and western Hellas; there was disunion in the Morea; the National Government had fled to Egina, and had chosen Count Capo d'Istria to be their president.

At this crisis a British fleet appeared in the Greek waters, and was soon joined by French and Russian ships. The admirals demanded peace: and, when it was refused, they sailed into the harbor of Navarino, where, in a battle of four hours' duration, they utterly destroyed the Turkish-Egyptian fleet (October 20, 1827). In the following year a great Russian army crossed the Pruth, and on the 20th of August, 1829, Adrianople, which lies only one hundred and thirty miles from Constantinople, fell

before their victorious march. Blows like these forced the sultan to conclude the Peace of Adrianople, by which he acknowledged the independence of Greece. It then remained to settle the government of the newly freed land. Greece was raised into a kingdom, and the crown was conferred on Leopold of Saxe-Coburg. He held it only three months, resigning on the ground that the Greeks were dissatisfied with his rule. Otho, a Bavarian prince, then (1832) received the vacant throne, but was driven from it in 1863.

HUNGARY.—The Magyars, whose settlement in the basin of the Danube has been already noticed, form the flower of the Hungarian nation; they number about six millions, forming two-fifths of the population; the remainder of which is made up chiefly of Croats, Servians, and other Sclavonic tribes. Much discontent was alive among the Magyars, owing to the attempts of Austria to destroy the nationality of Hungary; and when the Servians and Croats showed a disposition to side with Austria in this design, war broke out between the Magyars and these Sclavonic tribes. Jellachich, ban or governor of Croatia, invading Hungary, moved upon the capital, Pesth, but was soon obliged to retreat.

Foremost among the Hungarian patriots, whose eloquence roused the land to arms, was Lajos or Louis Kossuth, a man of noble parentage, who followed the profession of the law, and had already wielded a powerful influence over the nation as editor of the *Pesti-Hirlap* or *Pesth Journal.* Then an important change took place at Vienna. The Emperor Ferdinand abdicated in favor of his nephew, Francis-Joseph, whom the Hungarians refused to receive as their king. This kindled the war in earnest. In December, 1848, the Austrian armies began to move by nine converging lines towards the capital of Hungary. Almost without a shot Pesth yielded to the Austrians, while Kossuth and the Parliament retired to Debreczin. The Hungarian armies were placed first under Dembinski, and then under Görgei, whose fidelity to his country was more than suspected. In April, 1849, he won a brilliant series of victories, which all but expelled the Austrians from Hungary. But instead of following up these blows by marching on Vienna, he delayed to besiege Buda. Thus Vienna was saved.

The Hungarian Diet then declared the land free (April 14, 1849), and appointed Kossuth governor of Hungary. Roused again by this daring step, Austria applied for aid to Russia. Early in June, four hundred thousand Austrians and Russians entered Hungary at Presburg. They were led by Marshal Haynau, whose name has become infamous on account of his cruelties. He was the man who narrowly escaped with his life from the furious draymen of Barclay & Perkins, when he went to visit the brewery in London. On the 19th of July Haynau reached

Pesth, where he wreaked his mean and brutal revenge on some of the high-spirited ladies of Hungary, whom he publicly flogged.

Day after day the hopes of Hungary grew dim and dimmer, until the decisive battle of Temeswar, where the ammunition of the Hungarians ran short, completely broke up the southern army of the patriots (August 9, 1849).

Kossuth laid down his office, and Görgei became supreme; but this traitor made use of his power to betray his country. On the 13th of September he surrendered with his whole army and all his cannon to the Russian general. It was a fearful day for Hungary, and all through the ranks of the patriot army bitter curses were heard. One officer, snapping his sword in pieces, threw it at Görgei's feet. Hussars shot their horses, and many regiments burned their banners rather than give them up to the foe. Kossuth gave himself up to the Turks at Widdin, and lay in various prisons till August, 1851, when he was set free by the intervention of England and America. Since then he has spent his time in the United States and in London, supporting himself and his family, partly at least, by the delivery of eloquent lectures.

Poland has not been behind in her valiant struggles for liberty during this century. In 1830 the army of Warsaw declared in favor of the people, and the Diet soon declared the throne of Poland vacant. The Russians were beaten in the battle of Growchow, near Praga, with the loss of seven thousand men. They were yet more signally defeated at Ostrolenka (May, 1831); but the recapture of Warsaw by the soldiers of the czar, in September, blasted the budding promise of Poland's freedom. They made another serious struggle against their oppressors in 1846; and, during the late Russian war, their hopes were high that Britain and France would stretch out powerful hands to raise Poland once more to her ancient place among the thrones of Europe; but the dream was not realized, and Poland still lies beneath the heel of Russia.

The giant and still growing power of Russia, and the mysterious policy of the third Napoleon, who is the enigma of the day, are the sources from which the great wars of Europe, during the close of this nineteenth century, are likely to spring. Statesmen may well tremble for the balance of power, if Napoleon and the czar unite their strength.

GREAT NAMES OF THE NINTH PERIOD.

J. C. W. A. MOZART, born at Salzburg, January 27, 1756—a great musician—lived much at Vienna—chief works, "Don Giovanni," and the celebrated "Requiem," the latter written on his death-bed—died of fever, December 5, 1792, aged 36.

JEAN FRANCOIS MARMONTEL, born at Bort, in Limousin, in 1723—a

writer of dramas and romances—chief works, "Contes Moraux," and "Belisaire"—died at Abbeville in 1799, aged 76.

FRIEDRICH SCHILLER, born at Marbach, on the Neckar, November 10, 1759—made Professor of History at Jena in 1789—the great dramatist of Germany—chief works, "William Tell," and "Wallenstein"—wrote also a "History of the Thirty Years' War"—died in May, 1805, aged 46.

JOSEPH HAYDN, born at Rohrau, near Vienna, March 31, 1732—a great musical genius—father of modern orchestral music—greatest work, "The Creation," an oratorio—died 29th May, 1809, aged 77.

CHRISTOPHER WIELAND, born at Oberholzheim, in Suabia, September 5, 1733—a leading German writer—chief poem, the epic romance of "Oberon," published in 1780—best novel, "Agathon"—died January 30, 1813, aged 80.

CHR. HEYNE, born at Chemnitz, in Saxony, in 1729—a great classical scholar—Professor at Göttingen—published editions of Homer, Virgil, Pindar, etc., etc.—died July, 1814, aged 85.

ANTONIO CANOVA, born at Possagno, in the Venetian territory, November 1, 1757—a great sculptor—famous for his portraits of Popes, his groups, "Cupid and Psyche," "Hercules and Lycas," the "Graces," etc.—died in October, 1822, aged 65.

WILLIAM HERSCHEL, born at Hanover, November 15, 1738—a great astronomer—came to England as a bandman in the Hanoverian Guards—improved the reflecting telescope—discovered Uranus in 1781—lived much at Slough, where he died, August 23, 1822, aged 84.

GEORGE GORDON, LORD BYRON, born in London, January 22, 1788—one of the leading British poets—his chief work is "Childe Harold's Pilgrimage," written in the stanza of Spenser—died at Missolonghi, of fever, April 19, 1824, aged 36.

CARL-MARIA VON WEBER, born at Eutin, in Holstein, December, 1786—a distinguished musician of the German school—his greatest work, "Der Freischütz," was brought out in 1822 at Berlin—died in London, June 5, 1826, aged 40.

LUDWIG VON BEETHOVEN, born at Bonn, December 17, 1770—a great musician—among his many works may be named the "Mount of Olives," an oratorio, and "Fidelio," an opera—died March 26, 1827, aged 57.

SIR WALTER SCOTT, born in Edinburgh, August 15, 1771—famed as a poet, and still more so as a novelist—began with a translation of Bürger's "Leonora" and the "Wild Huntsman"—chief poems, "Lady of the Lake," and "Lay of the Last Minstrel"—died September 12, 1832, aged 61.

JOHANN WOLFGANG VON GÖTHE, born at Frankfort on the Maine, August 28, 1749—one of the most glorious names of Germany—chief works, "Werther," Wilhelm Meister," and "Faust"—died in 1832, aged 83.

BARTHOLD GEORGE NIEBUHR, born at Copenhagen, August 27, 1776—a great historian—lectured at Berlin and Bonn—chief work, his "History of Rome"—died January 2, 1831, aged 55.

GEORGE, BARON CUVIER, born at Montbéliard, in Doubs, August 23, 1769—remarkable as a naturalist—chief works, his "Fossil Bones," and the "Animal Kingdom"—died May 13, 1832, aged 63.

CHARLES NODIER, born at Besançon, in France, April 29, 1780—a poet and general writer—his "Napoleone," "Jean Sbogar," and "Therese Hubert," are well known—died January 27, 1844, aged 64.

FELIX MENDELSSOHN, born at Hamburg, February 3, 1809—a musician of the highest genius—chief works, his music for the "Midsummer Night's Dream," and his sublime oratorios, "St. Paul" and "Elijah"—died November 4, 1847, aged 38.

JOHANN NEANDER, born at Göttingen, January 15, 1789—Professor of Theology at Berlin—chief works, his "History of the Christian Church," and "Life of Christ"—died 1850.

PIERRE JEAN DE BERANGER, born at Paris, August 19, 1780—a noted lyric poet of France—he published five collections of songs—died 1857.

ALEXANDER, BARON VON HUMBOLDT, born at Berlin, September 14, 1769—the greatest descriptive naturalist of our day—chief work, his "Kosmos," an account of the physical phenomena of the universe—died in 1859.

LEOPOLD RANKE, born at Wiehe, in Prussian Saxony, December 21, 1795—a great historian—professor at Berlin—chief work, "History of the Popes."

JUSTUS, BARON VON LIEBIG, born at Darmstadt, May 8, 1803—a great living chemist—professor at Munich—has written much on the chemistry of agriculture and physiology.

CHRISTIAN GODFREY EHRENBERG, born at Delitsch in Prussian Saxony, April 19, 1795—a famous naturalist and microscopist—chief work on "Infusorial Animalcules."

CHAPTER IV.

AMERICAN REBELLION, 1861.

Causes of the Rebellion—Slavery—Tariff—Love of power by the leaders of the South—Disunion unpopular—Mr. Quincy spoke of disunion as a probable event—Disunion advocated by New England—Hartford convention—Disfavor of the people towards the members of the Hartford convention—Opposition to the admission of Missouri—Nullification in South Carolina—Convention to form a government—Davis made president.

THE United States was undisturbed by wars of great importance from the peace of 1815 to the outbreak of the civil war in 1861, a period of forty-six years. In that interval, her commerce was carried to every part of the world; her population increased from eight millions to thirty millions. The country was intersected, in all directions, by canals, railroads, and telegraph lines, affording communication, and direct and rapid transit, with the most remote parts of the nation.

The causes of the war are variously understood; some attribute it to the antagonistic sentiments held by the people of the Northern States and those of the South on the subject of slavery. A large majority opposed the spread of slavery, and, therefore, favored laws to prohibit its introduction into the Territories, while the inhabitants of the slave-holding States saw in that restriction a final end to the institution; and an "irrepressible conflict" arose.

Another cause was found in the different interests of the two sections. The Southern States favored free trade, while the North advocated a high tariff. The North had manufacturers to protect, while the exports of the South were wholly agricultural.

Still another reason is given, viz.: The leaders of the South found their power waning, and their ambition and love of rule led them to lay hold of the slavery and tariff questions, hoping so to divide the nation as to be able to set up a separate government, with slavery and free trade as the chief corner-stones, believing that the Western States would set up on the basis of free trade.

By the masses the very thought of disunion was regarded as treason. The subject had been broached from time to time in Congress, but was always met with indignation. Massachusetts and South Carolina were the disturbing elements in nearly every case.

I. At the third session of the 11th Congress, in 1811, the dissolution of the Union was spoken of for the first time by a member from the State of Massachusetts, as a possible event of the future. The manner in which this was received by that Congress seemed to indicate that it was looked upon by them almost with sentiments of abhorrence. The circumstances

are interesting at this time. The bill to form a Constitution and State government for the territory of Orleans, and the admission of such State, under the name of Louisiana, into the Union, was under consideration.

II. Mr. Quincy, of Massachusetts, in opposition to the bill, said: "I am compelled to declare it as my deliberate opinion, that if this bill passes, the bonds of this Union are virtually dissolved; that the States which compose it are free from their obligations; and that, as it will be the right of all, so it will be the duty of some, to prepare definitely for a separation, amicably, if they *can*, violently, if they *must*.

III. Mr. Quincy was here called to order by Mr. Poindexter.

IV. Mr. Quincy repeated and justified the remark he had made, which, to save all misapprehension, he committed to writing, in the following words: "If this bill passes, it is my deliberate opinion that it is virtually a dissolution of this Union; that it will free the States from their moral obligation; and as it will be the right of all, so it will be the duty of some, definitely to prepare for a separation, amicably, if they *can*, violently, if they *must*."

V. Occasionally the subject was alluded to in the progress of time, until it was regarded as a deed to be abhorred, but yet, such as might be both possible and necessary under some circumstances of wrong and oppression.

VI. The war with Great Britain in 1812 was so destructive to the commercial interests of the New England States, that they, to a great extent, withheld and refused their co-operation with the Federal Government. In Massachusetts, the State authorities took decisive measures to prevent the Federal Government from obtaining volunteers. Separation from the Union was discussed and advocated.

VII. Finally, public sentiment became so strong that a convention was held at Hartford, in the State of Connecticut. It was convened to consider the state of affairs, and to devise a remedy.

What its view of public affairs might be, and what would be the remedy it might suggest, was too well known to the public to admit of a doubt. Its sessions, like those of the conventions in the seceding States, were held in secret, or with doors closed against every one except members of the convention.

Whatever were the recommendations of this body, no public action took place upon them, in consequence of the cessation of hostilities, and the speedy conclusion of peace with Great Britain.

VIII. The result of this convention was to recognize and reaffirm the principle or doctrine which had hitherto been unofficially, and only by individuals, announced, that a separation of the States or a dissolution of the Union, or rather a withdrawal of a State or States from the Union,

could, under some circumstances, be rightful and just. This justification would be found to arise from acts of oppression and wrong persistently enforced by the Federal Government.

So slow were the people of the United States to recognize the right of revolution as against their own admirably formed system of government, and so attached and loyal were they to this system of government, that the members of the convention at Hartford were ever after refused all public favor, and carried with them the frowns of the people down to their graves.

IX. The institution of domestic slavery had always been repugnant to a large number of conscientious persons in the Northern and Southern States, but more extensively in the former. Upon the application of the State of Missouri to become a member of the Union in 1819, opposition was made, which was based upon hostility to the extension of the institution of slavery. At this time the strife ran so high as to present to the consideration of the people the question of a separation of the States, and render it more familiar to their minds. This difficulty was satisfactorily adjusted.

X. The subject now disappeared from the public mind until the years 1831 and '32, when the State of South Carolina took the ground that the tariff act passed by Congress in 1828, was not only unconstitutional, but so unjust and oppressive in its operation against her, that it should not be executed within her limits. The issue joined in this case did not present the true point involved.

It became a question of strength between the Federal Government and the State. The State herself was divided in sentiment. The Federal Government made concessions, and all open signs of strife disappeared. In this instance, the acts of oppression and wrong could not be stated in precise words, nor estimated in figures. They were not of such a positive and flagrant character that the world could see or comprehend them. Hence the course of South Carolina at that time has not been approved by the sentiment of mankind.

By this difficulty a great stride was taken towards a solution of the problem of a separation of the States. The State and the Federal Government reached the actual borders of a violent struggle.

XI. At this time, political agitation for the abolition of slavery commenced. This brought out, in 1835, political agitation for its defense and protection. Small and insignificant at first, this contest grew into a terrific flame. The latter party always asserted that under a just and strict administration of the government according to the Constitution, their rights were safe, and slavery, as an institution, could not be essentially damaged.

At the same time, they boldly and fully declared that, if the time should ever come when they should be convinced that they could not re-

tain their rights as slaveholders, and slaveholding States, within the Union, and under the administration of the Federal Government, they then should seek those rights and that protection without the Union. In other words, a separation or dissolution of the Union was to be the alternative of the triumph of one side, and the defeat of the other. With an astonishing indifference, apparently, the mass of the people witnessed this contest. It can be explained only upon the supposition, that the attachment to the Union of all the States was so great, and its civil and social advantages so conspicuous, that none were ready to believe a serious purpose for its destruction could be formed.

Finally, on the 4th of November, 1860, the issue was decided. The political agitators for the limitation or abolition of slavery, triumphed over the political agitators for its defense and protection.

The latter party immediately took the steps which they believed to be necessary to carry out their long-threatened purpose. It may not be altogether out of place in these pages to ask if they were justified in beginning these proceedings?

In answer it may be asked if the slaveholding States were suffering at that time, under the hand of the Federal Government, such oppression and such wrongs as justify the exercise of the sacred right of revolution? Did they fear the speedy infliction of such wrongs as would justify the exercise of the right of revolution?

This question is asked on the presumption that the apprehension of wrongs and oppression will justify revolution; and, for the sake of the argument, let it be granted. On this question turns the whole case. Did they fear and apprehend these wrongs? and were their fears just and well founded? The debates at the second session of the 37th Congress contain the views of Southern Senators and Representatives. According to these statements, such were their fears and apprehensions. South Carolina, after adopting an ordinance of secession, issued a declaration of grievances which embodied a statement of injuries she had suffered.

The first public act which took place having for its ultimate object the formation of a Southern Confederacy, was the call for a State Convention in South Carolina. This resulted in the secession of that State, and was followed rapidly by the secession of Alabama, Florida, Mississippi, Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas.

On the secession of the State of Georgia, one of her citizens used this language:

"Posterity will regard this act as wanting in statesmanship, and the greatest folly ever committed by a great and prosperous people. But undue prosperity begets luxury and restlessness, and grave deeds are often committed without reflection or reason. Posterity will censure the act of secession, for the reason that the seceding States, in their several Conven-

tions, made no demands for the redress of grievances, but madly—yea, blindly—precipitated a revolution. To stand justified in the eye of the future, and before the scrutiny of civilization, we should demand redress in a Convention of all the States."

On the 19th of January a committee in the Mississippi Legislature reported a series of resolutions to provide for a Southern Confederacy and the establishment of a Provisional Government. On this same day Governor Pickens, of South Carolina, sent by telegraph the following dispatch to the Commissioner A. B. Jackson, from that State to Mississippi: "Please urge Mississippi to send delegates to the Montgomery meeting of States, at as early a day as possible—say 4th of February—to form immediately a strong Provisional Government. It is the only thing to prevent war, and let that convention elect immediately a commander-in-chief for the seceding States."

The State Conventions of South Carolina and Alabama urged the Montgomery Congress, and hence, in the conventions of all the seceding States, delegates were appointed to this Congress. Among others was Howell Cobb, of Georgia, who resigned his position of Secretary of the Treasury of the United States, on the 10th day of December, 1860. Their first duties consisted in preparing a form of organization for themselves and the States which they represented. This resulted in a Provisional Constitution, to continue in operation for one year.

Under this Constitution, Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, was elected President, and Alexander H. Stephens, of Georgia, Vice-President. On the 16th of February, Mr. Davis arrived at Montgomery, to be inaugurated and to enter upon the duties of his office. He was greeted with an ovation, to which he responded in an address reviewing the position of the South. He said:

"The time for compromise has now passed, and the South is determined to maintain her position, and make all who oppose her smell Southern powder, and feel Southern steel, if coercion is persisted in. He had no doubts as to the result." He said, "We will maintain our rights and government at all hazards."

"We ask nothing, we want nothing: we will have no complications. If the other States join our Confederation they can freely come in on our terms. Our separation from the old Union is now complete. No compromise, no reconstruction is now to be entertained."

The United States Government had prepared to send supplies to the handful of troops besieged in Fort Sumter. Notice of this intention was given to the Governor of South Carolina, and if the Confederate Government was in earnest in what had been done, the hour had come when the sword must be drawn. Its determination was soon taken, and its action soon followed.

On the 8th of April, the following telegraphic correspondence commenced between the Secretary of War for the Confederate States and the Commander of the Confederate forces at Charleston harbor:

"CHARLESTON, *April* 8.

"L. P. WALKER, *Secretary of War:*

"An authorized messenger from President Lincoln just informed Governor Pickens and myself that provisions will be sent to Fort Sumter peaceably, or otherwise, by force.

"G. T. BEAUREGARD."

"MONTGOMERY, 10*t*

"Gen. G. T. BEAUREGARD, *Charleston:*

"If you have no doubt of the authorized character of the agent who communicated to you the intention of the Washington Government to supply Fort Sumter by force, you will at once demand its evacuation; and if this is refused, proceed in such a manner as you may determine to reduce it. Answer.

"L. P. WALKER, *Secretary of War.*"

"CHARLESTON, *April* 10.

"L. P. WALKER, *Secretary of War:*

"The demand will be made to-morrow at 12 o'clock.

"G. T. BEAUREGARD."

"MONTGOMERY, *April* 10.

"Gen. BEAUREGARD, *Charleston:*

"Unless there are especial reasons connected with your own condition, it is considered proper that you should make the demand at an early hour.

"L. P. WALKER, *Secretary of War.*"

"CHARLESTON, *April* 10.

"L. P. WALKER, *Secretary of War:*

"The reasons are special for 12 o'clock.

"G. T. BEAUREGARD."

"CHARLESTON, *April* 11, 1861.

"To Hon. L. P. WALKER:

"The demand was sent at 2 P.M., and until 6 was allowed for the answer.

"G. T. BEAUREGARD."

"MONTGOMERY, *April* 11, 1861.

"General BEAUREGARD, *Charleston*:

"Telegraph the reply of Major Anderson.

"L. P. WALKER."

"CHARLESTON, *April* 11, 1861.

"To Hon. L. P. WALKER:

"Major Anderson replies: 'I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your communication demanding the evacuation of this fort, and to say in reply thereto, that it is a demand with which I regret that my sense of honor and of my obligation to my government prevent my compliance.' He adds, verbally, 'I will await the first shot, and, if you do not batter us to pieces, we will be starved out in a few days.'

"G. T. BEAUREGARD."

"MONTGOMERY, *April* 11, 1861.

"To General BEAUREGARD:

"Do not desire needlessly to bombard Fort Sumter. If Major Anderson will state the time at which, as indicated by himself, he will evacuate, and agree that, in the mean time, he will not use his guns against us unless ours should be employed against Fort Sumter, you are authorized thus to avoid the effusion of blood. If this or its equivalent be refused, reduce the fort as your judgment decides to be the most practicable.

"L. P. WALKER."

"CHARLESTON, *April* 12, 1861.

"To Hon. L. P. WALKER:

"He would not consent. I wrote to-day.

"G. T. BEAUREGARD."

"CHARLESTON, *April* 12, 1861.

"To Hon. L. P. WALKER:

"We opened fire at 4.30.

"G. T. BEAUREGARD."

The fire opened at 4.30 A.M. on the 12th of April, on Fort Sumter, resulted in compelling the commander of the fort to surrender. On the evening of the same day, when the people of Montgomery, Alabama, were rejoicing in the prospect that Fort Sumter would fall, the following telegraphic dispatch was sent forth from that city to all parts of the United States:

"MONTGOMERY, *Friday, April* 12, 1861.

"An immense crowd serenaded President Davis and Secretary Walker at the Exchange Hotel, to-night.

"The former is not well, and did not appear. Secretary Walker appeared and declined to make a speech, but in a few words of electrical eloquence told the news from Fort Sumter, declaring, in conclusion, that before many hours, the flag of the Confederacy would float over that fortress.

"No man, he said, could tell where the war, this day commenced, would end; but he would prophecy that the flag which now flaunts the breeze here, would float over the dome of the old Capitol at Washington before the 1st of May. Let them try Southern chivalry and test the extent of Southern resources, and it might float eventually over Faneuil Hall itself."

On the 15th of April, immediately after the surrender of Fort Sumter, President Lincoln issued his message, calling forth the militia of the several States of the Union to the aggregate number of seventy-five thousand. This was immediately after an act of hostility had been committed under the authority of the Confederate Government, and forty days after an act had passed the Confederate Congress, authorizing a force of one hundred thousand men to be raised.

Who commenced hostilities is a question which must be considered as decided. "The war this day commenced," says the Secretary of War of the Confederate States.

"We opened fire at 4.30 AM.," says General Beauregard, in his dispatch to the Secretary of War of the Confederate States, dated April 12th.

Hostilities were commenced by order of the Government of the Confederate States. For this act President Davis felt it to be necessary to present to the world some grounds of justification.

This he attempted to do in his message to the Confederate Congress, dated April 29th.

At the outbreak of secession, the standing army of the United States consisted of a few thousand men, scattered over the country in small bodies. Of this small body less than a hundred* were garrisoning Fort Moultrie, in Charleston harbor, under the command of Major Anderson. Immediately after the act of secession was passed in South Carolina, Beauregard ordered Anderson to surrender. Anderson, finding Moultrie less tenable than Sumter, moved his force to the latter, and waited for supplies and reinforcements.

* Seventy men constituted the force of Anderson at Sumter.

CHAPTER V.

AMERICAN REBELLION, 1861 (*continued*).

Effects of the capture of Fort Sumter—Battle of Bull Run—Army enlarged—Condition of the belligerents at the end of 1863—Emancipation Proclamation—General Grant made commander-in-chief—The war in Virginia—Sherman's operations in Georgia—Sherman's march to the sea—Grant's fighting and manœuvring—Lee's surrender.

THE capture of Fort Sumter acted on the country like magic. The President issued a call for seventy-five thousand troops; and three hundred thousand volunteers enrolled themselves for the defense of the Union.

The Confederate army marched towards Washington, and the Government collected its forces there to defend the nation's capital.

The seceded States seized all the forts and United States property in their limits, including the navy-yard at Norfolk, Va., and the armory at Harper's Ferry; and made Richmond their seat of government.

In July, the Government troops advanced, under orders of General Scott, General McDowell having command, and on the 21st met the Confederate army at Bull Run, about thirty-five miles from Washington, where the first great conflict of the war took place.

After several hours of fighting, the contestants being nearly equal, having about twenty thousand men on each side, a reinforcement arrived from the South, and secured the victory for the Confederates.

The Union army was put to flight, with a loss of over three thousand killed and captured. The reported loss of the enemy was less.

This first battle revealed to the Government the earnestness and formidable character of the rebellion, and showed the necessity for a larger army. At once Congress provided for its enlargement, by ordering five hundred thousand men to the field, and made an appropriation of $500,000,000 to prosecute the war.

General McClellan was put in command, and applied himself vigorously to organizing the army.

By the end of the first year the Government had succeeded in hemming in the South, by blockading the coast, and taking possession of Maryland and West Virginia. The great battle of Bull Run had been won by the South, while, in the lesser battles that occurred, the opposing parties were about even in their successes.

The beginning of 1863, the second year of the war, found the Government in possession of an effective army of five hundred thousand men, and a navy which pretty effectually protected the coast. The Confederacy had less than four hundred thousand men in the field. The South moved *from* a centre, while the North had the disadvantage of working *towards*

the centre from without; a condition of things making operations more difficult, and requiring far greater numbers.

During the year important battles were fought. The Confederates made a raid under Bragg, in Kentucky, carrying off large droves of cattle, horses, and mules.

Lee invaded Maryland, and was defeated and driven out by McClellan. The battles of the Shenandoah Valley, on the Peninsula, Cedar Mountain, and the bloody encounter at Fredericksburg, all terminated in favor of the South.

The North, besides defeating Lee at Antietam, had taken New Orleans, opened the navigation of the Mississippi river, and captured several forts and strongholds of the enemy.

The Union army had during the year increased to over seven hundred thousand, while the Confederate force had been reduced to about three hundred thousand. In the latter part of this year, General Burnside superseded General McClellan in the command of the army.

The third year of the war was inaugurated by the Emancipation Proclamation. President Lincoln, on the 1st day of January, 1863, declared the slaves in the seceded States free.

The important events of this year, on the part of the Union, were the victories of Vicksburg and Chattanooga, and the defeat and expulsion of Lee from Pennsylvania.

The South, on the other hand, had taken Galveston, and gained the battles of Chancellorsville and Chickamauga.

In March, 1864, General Grant was put in command of the armies of the United States, and he at once put in operation a plan to destroy Lee's army and capture Richmond. The effective armies of the South were in Virginia and Georgia. Grant took the field in Virginia, and ordered Sherman to Georgia. Sherman moved upon the enemy. The summer was spent by Grant, in Virginia, in dreadful conflicts with Lee, while Sherman was fighting bloody battles with Johnson, in Georgia. Sherman, having cut off the supplies of the Confederate army at Atlanta, compelled the evacuation of the city. The Confederate General Hood then invaded Tennessee, and drove Thomas to Nashville, and besieged him there. After two weeks' inactivity, Thomas attacked Hood, and after a bloody battle, which lasted two days, Hood's army was destroyed.

Sherman was now at liberty to march to the south, and commenced his celebrated march to the sea. He set out from Atlanta, on the 16th day of November, with an army sixty thousand strong, and reached Savannah in time to spend the Christmas holidays there, having marched three hundred miles through the enemy's country in about five weeks.

General Grant moved steadily on towards Richmond, suffering great

losses in every encounter with Lee, yet pressing on. It is said that he was defeated in every battle he fought until he sat down before Richmond yet so persistent was he in the grand object before him, that, instead of retreating after a disastrous battle, he pressed forward by a flank movement, which gave him the name of "the great flanker."

Sherman, in February, commenced his march from Savannah towards Richmond; Sheridan came down from the North through the Shenandoah Valley, and joined the army at Petersburg. Lee saw himself hedged in, and attempted to escape with the wreck of his army, amounting to forty thousand men. Grant ordered Sheridan in pursuit. This active cavalry commander pressed the rear of the retreating army, and finally, watching his opportunity, gained the front and made a stand.

Lee, seeing that resistance was vain, surrendered his army on the 9th day of April, 1865.

This surrender was followed by that of all the branches of the Confederate army, and the flight of Jefferson Davis, the President of the Confederacy. The great War of the Rebellion was ended.

The wonderful spectacle was presented to the nations of the world, of the people of a Representative Republic volunteering to fight the battles of their government against their own citizens, who had attempted to destroy the integrity of the nation.

It also revealed the fact that nations have no friends, and especially democratic governments.

In this great struggle more than a million of men were killed or permanently disabled. About three billions of dollars was expended in carrying on the war, and property to an equal amount was destroyed, while the country lost the productive labor of about one and a half millions of men for four years, worth three billions more; and, allowing one billion loss for the stagnation in trade during the first years of the war, we shall have the enormous sum of ten billions of dollars for the cost of the Rebellion.

CHAPTER VI.

PRUSSIA.

Difficulty between Denmark and Schleswig-Holstein—England and Germany interested—Prussia and Austria interfere—Prussia and Austria divide and appropriate the duchies—Austria cedes her right to Prussia—Prussia complains that Austria does not act in good faith—The difficulties result in war—Prussia dictates terms of peace—Prussia annexes some of the German States—Gains territory and population.

In the autumn of 1863, Frederic VII., King of Denmark, died, and the crown descended to female heirs. Schleswig-Holstein, which had

constituted up to that time a part of the kingdom of Denmark, claimed that as by their law the crown could not be worn by a woman, Prince Frederic was entitled to the succession. To this Denmark objected.

The European powers, and especially England and Germany, became interested in this dispute, but the year closed leaving the question unsettled.

August 15, 1855, Prussia and Austria (who had, independent of the German confederation, undertaken, as two great powers of Europe, to defend Schleswig-Holstein against the requirements of Denmark) agreed to divide the duchies, Austria taking Holstein, and Prussia Schleswig, and, immediately after, took military possession.

The next year, on the 23d of August, Austria ceded to Prussia her right to Holstein, and gave up possession; but was accused by Prussia of meddling with the political affairs of the duchy. And this difficulty, with other disagreements in the Germanic Confederation, produced a sharp diplomatic correspondence between the two powers.

The disagreement of Prussia with Austria in the Schleswig-Holstein and the Federal German questions in 1866, led to complications which finally resulted in the arbitration of the sword.

Prussia withdrew from the Germanic Confederation, and war commenced between Prussia and Austria, involving some of the minor German states. In this war, known as the Seven Weeks' War, Prussia was marvelously successful, exceeding the boldest expectations. Her generals displayed most remarkable talents and ability; her troops fought with most wonderful bravery; the terrible efficiency of the needle-gun astonished the world; and in less than sixty days Prussia found herself in a position to dictate the terms of a treaty of peace with Austria and the South German states. In this treaty Austria was required to renounce all connection with the Germanic Confederation; to consent to a new Confederation under the leadership of Prussia; and to make a complete and final session of all claims to Schleswig-Holstein.

This treaty gave Prussia the leadership and ascendency in Germany, and raised her to the position of a first-class power. Her boundaries were extended, by the annexation of Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, Frankfort, and Schleswig-Holstein, adding 27,450 square miles of territory, and 4,284,700 to her population.

CHAPTER VII.

FRENCH AND GERMAN WAR—1870.

Spain invites Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern to accept the crown—France objects—Demands of France on Prussia—Prussia refuses to accede—Leopold declines voluntarily—France not satisfied—France demands a promise in writing from King William—The king refuses --French minister accosts the king in a public walk—Ministers recalled by both governments—Both nations commenced preparing for war—Declaration of war—England offers to mediate—The Pope also attempts to bring about a reconciliation—King William's reply to the Pope—Mediation not accepted--Publication of secret treaty—France denies having proposed the treaty.

ONE of the most wonderful events of the nineteenth century, if not *the* most wonderful, was the late war between France and Prussia. It was wonderful in its origin, the cause being the slightest that was ever known to involve two nations in war. It was wonderful in the great rapidity with which large bodies of troops on both sides were brought into the field. Wonderful in the results, but most remarkable in the unexampled success of one party.

Spain had been for some time in an unsettled state, with an empty throne, and on the 4th of July, 1870, invited Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern to accept the crown.

France had not been consulted, and the emperor believed it would be damaging to French influence to have a German prince on the throne of Spain; and demanded that the invited prince should make a formal withdrawal.

The Spanish minister stated to the French government that the prince had been chosen by the Spanish Provisional Government without consulting any nation. Notwithstanding this, France persisted in her demands that neither Leopold nor any other German prince should be a candidate for the Spanish throne. And the French minister at the court of Prussia was instructed to demand of the king, who was at that time at Ems, to forbid Prince Leopold to accept the crown of Spain. This the king decidedly refused to do, on the ground that he had no right to exercise such authority over a Prince of Hohenzollern who was of age. The government of Prussia, at the same time, notified all her ministers to the neighboring governments, that the Prussian Government had no agency in selecting Prince Leopold for the Spanish throne.

Napoleon was not satisfied with the official declarations of the Spanish and Prussian Governments; and war seemed imminent. On the 12th of July Leopold declined the honor the government of Spain had offered him; this he did of his own accord. At this Europe drew a long breath, and thought all had been done that France required.

France, however, was not so easily satisfied, and demanded that the King of Prussia should write with his own hand a letter to the Emperor of France, guaranteeing that no Prince of Hohenzollern should be in future a candidate for the crown of Spain.

Count Bismarck refused to allow these extraordinary claims to be laid before the Prussian king. And Count Benedetti, the French ambassador, accosted the king in a public walk at Ems, and insisted upon a compliance with the French demands. The king was outraged, and indignantly refused to listen to him; and the French minister was notified at once that the king would not allow himself to be approached again upon this subject.

July 14th, Baron Von Werther was recalled from Paris, and Count Benedetti was ordered home from the Prussian court by his government, and the grandest war preparations commenced, accompanied with the highest enthusiasm in both nations, showing the most remarkable willingness on the part of the people to commence hostilities. The war spirit was not confined to Prussia, but, throughout the German states, both north and south, the people rose with most wonderful unanimity, justifying King William; and the governments of the several states at once put their armies in motion towards the French frontier.

Duke Grammont, in the Legislature of France, made a speech on the 15th of July, in which he pronounced the course Prussia had taken, unsatisfactory and insulting, and regarded it as a blow aimed at the honor and dignity of France. It was, he considered, a sufficient reason for war.

The lower house appropriated $103,200,000, by a vote nearly unanimous; and the Senate passed the act by a unanimous vote; and waited on Napoleon to thank him for his promptness in taking steps to sustain the dignity, and vindicate the rights and honor of the nation.

France declared war, and on the 19th of July, 1870, the declaration was formally presented to Count Bismarck. The declaration rested upon three complaints.

1st. King William insulted Count Benedetti, at Ems, by turning from him, and refusing to give him an audience; and the Prussian Government approved of the king's course. 2d. The refusal of the King of Prussia to compel Prince Leopold to withdraw his name as a candidate for the crown of Spain. 3rd. King William not only refused to compel Prince Leopold to withdraw from the candidacy, but he persisted in giving him liberty to accept the throne.

England offered to act as a mediator, but neither Prussia nor France was willing to accept her interference, and preparations went on. An attempt to mediate was also made by the pope, in the following letter:

THE POPE'S LETTER TO THE KING OF PRUSSIA.

"YOUR MAJESTY:

"In the present grave circumstances, it may appear an unusual thing to receive a letter from me; but, as the vicar on earth of God and peace, I cannot do less than offer my mediation. It is my desire to witness the cessation of warlike preparations, and to stop the evils, their inevitable consequences.

"My mediation is that of a sovereign whose small dominion excites no jealousy, and who inspires confidence by the moral and religious influence he personifies. May God lend an ear to my wishes, and listen also to those I form for your Majesty, to whom I would be united in the bonds of charity.

"PIUS.

"Given at the Vatican, July 22, 1870."

KING WILLIAM'S REPLY TO THE POPE.

"MOST AUGUST PONTIFF:

"I am not surprised, but profoundly moved at the touching words traced by your hand. They cause the voice of God and peace to be heard. How could my heart refuse to listen to so powerful an appeal!

"God witnesses that neither I nor my people devised or provoked war. Obeying the sacred duties which God imposes on sovereigns and nations, we take up the sword to defend the independence and honor of our country, ready to lay it down the moment those treasures are secure.

"If your Holiness could offer me, from him who so unexpectedly declared war, assurances of sincerely pacific dispositions and guarantees against a similar attempt upon the peace and tranquillity of Europe, it certainly will not be I who will refuse to receive them from your venerable hands, united as I am with you in bonds of Christian charity, and sincere friendship.

"WILLIAM."

On the 23d of July, the Emperor of the French issued the following

PROCLAMATION:

"FRENCHMEN:

"There are solemn moments in the life of peoples, when the national honor, violently excited, imposes itself with irresistible force, dominates all interests, and alone takes in hand the direction of the destinies of the country.

"One of those decisive hours has sounded for France. Prussia, to whom, both during and since the war of 1866, we have shown the most

conciliatory disposition, has taken no account of our good wishes and our forbearance.

"Launched on the path of invasion, she has aroused defiance, everywhere necessitated exaggerated armaments, and has turned Europe into a camp, where nothing but uncertainty and fear of the morrow reigns. A late incident has come to show the instability of international relations, and to prove the gravity of the situation. In presence of the new pretensions of Prussia, we made our protestations to be heard. They were evaded, and were followed on the part of Prussia by contemptuous proceedings. Our country has resented this with profound irritation, and immediately a cry for war resounded from one end of France to the other. It only remains to us to confide our destinies to the decision of arms.

"We do not make war on Germany, whose independence we respect. Let us wish that the peoples who compose the great German nationality, may freely dispose of their destinies. For ourselves, we demand the establishment of a state of affairs which shall guarantee our security and assure our future.

"We wish to conquer a lasting peace, based on the true interests of peoples, and to put an end to the precarious state in which all nations employ their resources to arm themselves one against the other. The glorious flag which we once more unfurl before those who have provoked us, is the same which bore throughout Europe the civilizing ideas of our great revolution. It represents the same principles and inspires the same devotion. Frenchmen, I place myself at the head of that valiant army which is animated by love of duty and of country.

"It knows its own worth, since it has seen how victory has accompanied its march in the four quarters of the world. I shall take my son with me, despite his youth. He knows what are the duties which his name imposes upon him, and he is proud to bear his share in the dangers of those who fight for their country.

"May God bless our efforts. A great people who defend a just cause are invincible.

"NAPOLEON."

An Imperial decree, dated July 23, appointed the empress Regent, during the absence of the emperor with the army.

Napoleon did not offer the guarantees that Prussia demanded, hence the pope was not accepted as a mediator.

The contiguous nations, Switzerland, Holland, and Belgium, declared their intentions to observe a strict neutrality, and raised armies to enforce it.

Both France and Prussia published explanations of the cause of the

war; each party charging the other with double dealing, and a want of truth. Count Bismarck published the statement that, in 1866, France proposed to Prussia that the German States should all be compelled to unite under Prussia, with the condition, that France be allowed to absorb Belgium. This treaty had been kept secret, until France declared war against Prussia, in 1870, when Bismarck caused it to be photographed and circulated, showing it to be in Benedetti's own handwriting, as follows:

SECRET TREATY.

"His Majesty, the King of Prussia, and His Majesty, the Emperor of the French, judging it useful to bind closer the ties of friendship which unite them, and so confirm the relations of good neighborhood which happily exist between the two countries, and being beside convinced that, to attain this result, which is, moreover, of a kind to insure the maintenance of the general peace, it is for their interest to come to an understanding on the questions concerning their future relations, have resolved to conclude a Treaty to the following effect, and have, in consequence, nominated as their representatives the following persons, viz:

"His Majesty, etc.,

"His Majesty, etc.,

who, after exchanging their full powers, which have been found in good and due form, have agreed on the following Articles:

"ART. I. His Majesty, the Emperor of the French, acquiesces in and recognizes the gains made by Prussia in the course of the last war, waged by her against Austria, and that Power's allies.

"ART. II. His Majesty, the King of Prussia, engages to facilitate the acquisition by France of Luxemburg; and for this purpose, His Majesty will enter into negotiations with His Majesty, the King of the Netherlands, with the view of inducing him to cede his sovereign rights over the Duchy to the Emperor of the French, on the terms of such compensation as shall be judged adequate or otherwise.

"The Emperor of the French, on his side, engages to assume whatever pecuniary charges this arrangement may involve.

"ART. III. His Majesty, the Emperor of the French, shall raise no opposition to a federal union of the Confederation of North Germany with the states of South Germany, excepting Austria, and this federal union may be based on one common Parliament; due reservation, however, being made of the sovereignty of the said states.

"ART. IV. His Majesty, the King of Prussia, on his side, in case His Majesty, the Emperor of the French, should be led by circumstances to cause his troops to enter Belgium or to conquer it, shall grant armed aid to France, and shall support her with all his forces, military and naval,

in the face of and against every Power which should, in this eventuality, declare war.

"ART. V. To insure the complete execution of the preceding conditions, His Majesty, the King of Prussia, and His Majesty, the Emperor of the French, contract, by the present Treaty, an alliance offensive and defensive, which they solemnly engage to maintain. Their Majesties bind themselves, besides and in particular, to observe its terms in all cases when their respective states, the integrity of which they reciprocally guarantee, may be threatened with attack; and they shall hold themselves bound, in any like conjuncture, to undertake without delay, and under no pretext to decline, whatever military arrangements may be enjoined by their common interest conformably to the terms and provisions above declared."

This treaty startled the European powers, and caused the most profound indignation. This was a master-stroke on the part of Prussia. The making public of this treaty robbed France of all sympathy,

The French denied the initiative in this secret treaty, and charged Prussia with its authorship, though Benedetti acknowledged that he wrote it at the dictation of Bismarck.

BENEDETTI'S DENIAL.

"PARIS, *July* 29, 1870.

"To the Minister of Foreign Affairs:

"MONSIEUR LE DUC:

"However unjust may have been the criticisms of which I was personally the object, when the fact became known in France that the Prince of Hohenzollern had accepted the crown of Spain, I did not feel called on to notice them, and, as was my duty, I left to His Majesty's government the care of rectifying them. I cannot maintain the same silence in presence of the use which Count Bismarck has made of a document to which he seeks to assign a value it never possessed, and I ask permission from your Excellency to re-establish the facts in all their exactitude. It is a matter of public notoriety that the Chancellor offered to us, before and during the last war, to assist in re-uniting Belgium to France, in compensation for the aggrandizements which he aimed at, and which he has obtained for Prussia.

"I might on this point invoke the testimony of the whole diplomacy of Europe, which was aware of everything that was going on. The French Government constantly declined those overtures, and one of your predecessors, M. Drouyn de Lhuys, is in a position to give on this point explanations which would not leave any doubt subsisting. At the moment when the Peace of Prague was concluded, and in presence of the excitement raised in France by the annexation of Hanover, Electo-

ral Hesse, and the city of Frankfort to Prussia, Count Bismarck again testified the most ardent desire to re-establish the equilibrium broken by these acquisitions.

"Various combinations respecting the integrity of the states bordering on France and Germany were suggested; they became the object of several interviews, during which the Count always endeavored to make his personal ideas prevail. In one of those conversations, and in order to form a thorough comprehension of his intentions, I consented to transcribe them, in some sort, under his dictation. The form, no less than the substance, clearly demonstrates that I confined myself to reproducing a project conceived and developed by him.

"Count Bismarck kept the paper, desiring to submit it to the king. On my side I reported to the Imperial Government the communications which had been made to me.

"The Emperor rejected them as soon as they were brought to his knowledge. I ought to say that the King of Prussia himself appeared unwilling to accept the basis suggested, and since that period—that is to say, during the last four years—I have had no further exchange of ideas with Count Bismarck on the subject.

"If the initiation of such a treaty had been taken by the Emperor's Government, the draft would have been prepared at the Ministry, and I should not have had to produce a copy in my own handwriting; besides, it would have been differently worded, and negotiations would have been carried on simultaneously in Paris and Berlin.

"In that case the Prussian Minister would not have contented himself with handing, indirectly, the text over to publication, especially at the moment when your Excellency was rectifying in the despatches which were inserted in the Journal Officiel, other errors which attempts were being made to propagate. But to attain his aim—that of misleading public opinion and forestalling any indiscretions which we might ourselves commit—he has adopted this expedient, which dispensed him from specifying at what moment, under what circumstances, and in what manner the document was written. He evidently entertained the idea of suggesting, owing to those omissions, conjectures which, while disengaging his personal responsibility, would compromise that of the Emperor's Government.

"There is no need to qualify such proceedings; to point them out and deliver them to the judgment of the public in Europe is sufficient.

"Accept, etc.,

"V. BENEDETTI."

Ollivier also published the following note:

OLLIVIER'S DENIAL.

"PARIS, *July* 26, '70.

"MY DEAR FRIEND:

"How could you believe there was any truth in the Treaty the *Times* has published? I assure you that the Cabinet of the 2d of January never negotiated or concluded anything of the kind with Prussia. I will even tell you that it has negotiated nothing at all with her. The only negotiations that have existed between us have been indirect, confidential, and had Lord Clarendon for their intermediary. Since Mr. Gladstone slightly raised the veil in one of his speeches, we may allow ourselves to say, that the object of these negotiations, so honorable to Lord Clarendon, was to assure the peace of Europe by a reciprocal disarmament.

"You will admit that this does not much resemble the conduct of Ministers who seek a pretext for war. You know the value I set upon the confidence and friendship of the great English nation. The union of the two countries has always seemed to me the most essential condition of the world's progress. And for that reason I earnestly beg you to contradict all those false reports spread by persons who have an interest in dividing us.

"We have no secret policy hidden behind our avowed policy. Our policy is single, public, loyal, without *arrières pensées*; we do not belong to the school of those who think might is superior to right; we believe, on the contrary, that right will always prevail in the end; and it is because the right is on our side in the war now beginning, that, with the help of God, we reckon upon victory.

"Affectionate salutations from your servant,

(Signed) "EMILE OLLIVIER."

CHAPTER VIII.

FRENCH AND GERMAN WAR—1870—(*Continued*).

Count Bismarck charges the French Ministers of falsehood—Napoleon's Proclamation—King William's Proclamation—Population of France—French Army at the breaking out of the war—French commanders—Population of Germany—Strength of the German Army at the commencement of the war—Commanders of the German Army.

COUNT BISMARCK pronounced both the statements of Benedetti and Ollivier falsehoods, and charged Benedetti with proposing other secret treaties, to absorb or destroy the smaller governments of Europe.

On the 28th of July Napoleon caused the following proclamation to be published:

PROCLAMATION OF THE FRENCH EMPEROR.

"Soldiers: I have come to place myself at your head, to defend the honor and the soil of the country. You go forth to fight against one of the best armies in Europe; but others of equal excellence have been unable to resist your bravery. It will be so now. The war which is commencing will be long and difficult, for its seat will be places bristling with obstacles and fortresses; but nothing is beyond the persevering efforts of the soldiers of Africa, the Crimea, China, Italy, and Mexico.

"Once again you will show what can be done by a French army animated by the sentiment of duty, sustained by discipline, fired by love of country.

"Whatever road we may take beyond our frontiers, we shall find there the glorious traces of our fathers. We shall prove ourselves worthy of them. All France is following you with ardent wishes, and the eyes of the world are upon you.

"The fate of liberty and civilization depends upon our success. Soldiers, let each of us do our duty, and the God of battles will be with us.

"NAPOLEON.

"Imperial Headquarters, Metz, July 28, 1870."

On the 31st day of July, the King of Prussia issued the following proclamation, and set out for the front:

KING WILLIAM'S PROCLAMATION.

"To my people:—On my departure to-day for the army, to fight with it for Germany's honor, and the preservation of our most precious possessions, I wish to grant an amnesty for all political crimes and offences, in recognition of the unanimous uprising of my people at this crisis. I have instructed the Minister of State to submit a decree to me to this effect.

"My people know with me that the rupture of the peace and the provocation to war did not emanate from our side.

"But, being challenged, we are resolved, like our forefathers, placing full trust in God, to accept the battle for the defense of the Fatherland.

"WILLIAM."

The population of France at the outbreak of the war, was 38,000,000.

The strength of the army on October 1, 1869, the year before the war, was 434,356, made up as follows: On duty in France, 365,179; in Africa, 63,925; in Italy 5,252. This number, in a marvellously short time after the declaration of war was increased to 600,000, with 169 batteries, and 1014 pieces of artillery.

At the commencement of the war the commanders were:

COMMANDERS OF THE FRENCH FORCES.

THE EMPEROR, *Commander-in-chief.*
MARSHAL LEBEUF, *Major-General, and Secretary of War.*
GENERALS LEREM AND JARRAS, *Assistant Major-Generals*
MARSHAL BAZAINE, *Commander of the Army of the Moselle.*
MARSHAL MACMAHON, *Commander of the Army of the Rhine.*
MARSHAL CANROBERT, *Commander of the Army of Paris.*
GENERAL DE VINOY, *Commander of recruits and reserves.*
GENERAL BOURBAKI, *Commander of Imperial Guards.*
GENERAL TROCHU, *Governor of Paris, and Commander of the Department of Paris.*

Population of Prussia and German states, 40,000,000.

The Prussian force, at the commencement of hostilities, or at the time war was declared, was about 500,000 in Prussia alone; in a very short time she put about 700,000 in the field, and the other German states had over 300,000; making about 1,000,000.

COMMANDERS OF THE PRUSSIAN FORCES.

KING WILLIAM I., *Commander-in-chief.*
A. T. EMILE VON ROON, *Secretary of War.*
COUNT VON MOLTKE, *Chief of Staff.*
GENERAL VON STEINMETZ, *First Army Commander.*
PRINCE FREDERIC CHARLES, *Second Army Commander.*
FREDERIC WILLIAM, CROWN PRINCE, *Third Army Commander.*
PRINCE ROYAL OF SAXONY, *Fourth Army Commander.*
GENERAL WERDER, *Fifth Army Commander.*
GRAND DUKE OF MECKLENBURG-SCHWERIN, *Sixth Army Commander.*
GENERAL VON CANSTEIN, *Seventh Army Commander.*

CHAPTER IX.

FRENCH AND PRUSSIAN WAR—1870.

BATTLES NEAR METZ.

Battle of Metz—Battle of Mars-La-Tour—Battle of Gravelotte—Battle of Bazeilles—Battle before Sedan—Surrender of MacMahon and the emperor—Articles of capitulation.

ON the 14th day of August, the first great battle took place near the city of Metz. This bloody encounter took place on Sunday. The French army near Metz numbered about 230,000. The Prussians, with 440,000

men, advanced upon the French in three columns. The battle is described as follows:

"At five o'clock the whole line is engaged. L'Admirault and De Caen show a determined front on the right, at Borney, Grigy, and Colomberg, and battle obstinately at every point. L'Astron advances impetuously against Colomberg from the south. The slaughter is terrible; every storming party seems to advance into the jaws of death. The conflict grows hotter. The whole seventh corps is engaged—Glumer, Kamecke, and Woynac. Eight batteries pour an incessant stream of shot and shell upon Colomberg. Every advance of the Prussians is met with an equally hot fire from the French. Woynac storms the French right near Colomberg. It is a fearful advance. The French fire sweeps the German lines with deadly precision. These, however, are filled up, as if the North gave out heroes at call.

"The deep rumbling growl of the mitrailleuse, the roar of the heavy guns from the outworks of the fortifications, the spiteful spitting of the chassepôt, and the cutting ring of the needle-gun bullets, is said by the officers to have been something truly infernal! The attack is repulsed. Again the Germans form and advance over the field strewn with dead brothers. It is the advance of Lee upon the left centre at Gettysburg, but with a better result.

"Weary and decimated, the brave French give way. There is a shout of victory from the Prussian left, and the Ostend brigade occupy the wood covering Colomberg. The French right is defeated, and L' Admirault falls back upon the guns of Fort Quelen, commanding with seventeen guns the south of Metz.

"Towards evening, General Frossard decided to make one more attack on the Prussians to the north. This last resort was an offensive movement to turn the Prussian left towards Serigny. The first corps met the French with sturdy courage, and then Manteuffel ordered a bold advance against Frossard.

"The onslaught was bloody. It was the last struggle of the giants. Crippled, decimated, and defeated, the French recoiled upon Neuilly, and then behind the guns of Bellecroix. Night threw a veil over the thousands slain, and darkness closed the fight."

The Prussians had 80,000 men in the engagement, with a reserve of 40,000, and 125 pieces of artillery. The French force engaged numbered 60,000, and 30,000 reserves, and 150 pieces of artillery. It was a most bloody slaughter. The Germans lost 4,000, and the French 2,000.

Battle of Mars-la-Tour.

On the 16th, two days after the battle last described (Napoleon having left Metz and established his headquarters at Gravelotte, on the 15th), another terrific and bloody battle occurred, at Mars-la-Tour, near Metz. This was the first battle in which the French fought the Germans in the open field. At all previous encounters the French had defenses, but in this battle they had no time to make entrenchments.

The battle was brought on by the Germans, who supposed Bazaine had retreated, and that they were assailing only his rear guard. The German force was about 80,000, while the French was about 130,000 strong. Notwithstanding this great disparity in numbers, the Germans fought eight hours. As night approached the Germans began to see that their ranks were so thinned that they must retire from the combat. But, just before dark, Prince Charles arrived with reinforcements. His arrival has been compared to the coming of Sheridan at Winchester, for, like that dashing cavalryman, he had ridden sixteen miles, and came up just in time to save a defeat.

On the arrival of reinforcements the Germans renewed their assaults, and the havoc went on. The French fought fiercely, no less bravely than the Germans; every inch of ground they yielded was piled with the dead bodies of German horses and men. The loss on the German side was not less than 16,000 men. The Prussian report of killed and wounded was 676 officers and over 15,000 men, and nearly 2,000 horses

Battle of Gravelotte.

The French and German forces were glad to rest on the 17th, the day after the bloody battle of Mars-la-Tour.

On the 18th, at eight o'clock in the morning, the Prussians attacked the French lines at Gravelotte, having placed themselves between the French forces and Paris. They fought with such skill and determination that they forced the French from all their positions, cut off their retreat towards Paris, and compelled them to take shelter at Metz. It is estimated that the French lost in this battle 18,000, and the Germans 25,000.

King William telegraphed to the queen at nine o'clock P.M. "The French army, occupying a very strong position to the west of Metz, was to-day attacked under my leadership, and after nine hours fighting, was completely defeated, cut off from its communications with Paris, and driven back towards Metz."

Here again the mitrailleuse, the chassepôt, and the terrible needle-gun dealt death in every direction, and of the gallant bands, who that morning

with high hopes went into battle, more than 40,000 were killed or maimed. It was a favorite sentiment a few years since, that the time had gone by when enlightened nations would be obliged to settle their differences on the battle-field. But the American Rebellion and this most wonderful war, have exploded this pleasant doctrine.

Bazeilles and Sedan.

After the bloody battle last described, the Emperor Napoleon moved to Chalons, on the 19th of August, and on the 23d, four days afterward, he, with the young prince and General MacMahon, were in Rheims. Thence they moved to Rethel.

MacMahon attempted to move his army towards Metz, to form a junction with Bazaine, but did not succeed, as the Germans had anticipated such an event, and kept a large force between his army and Metz. At Beaumont, the Germans attacked the French, and defeated a corps ; this checked the progress of MacMahon, and gave the Germans time to bring up their divisions so as to surround him, cutting off both his retreat towards Paris, and his advance to Metz. Surrounded on the south and west, and turned from Metz, he commenced his retreat upon Sedan, pressed hard by the Germans. Reaching Bazeilles, and finding himself in a favorable position for giving battle, he made a stand, and a fierce contest took place, in which the French were beaten and driven back upon Sedan. The German troops now completely surrounded Sedan, and continually made the circumference of the circle smaller. The French fought with desperation, and the Germans pressed on with overwhelming numbers, and characteristic German persistence. In this battle, the Germans had 285,000 engaged, while MacMahon's army numbered 115,000 ; less than half that number. The French, out-numbered two to one, were forced into Sedan, and the Germans commenced shelling the town. The Prussian king ordered the firing to stop, and sent an officer with a flag of truce, offering capitulation. He entered the city, and was conducted into the presence of the Emperor Napoleon. The French emperor asked what his orders were, when he replied, that he had been sent to summon the army and fortress to surrender.

He was referred to General Wimpffen, who had assumed the command in place of MacMahon, who had been disabled in battle. Napoleon directed a letter to King William, and offered him his sword.

Letter of Napoleon to King William.

"Sire, my brother:—Not having been able to die in the midst of my

troops, it only remains for me to place my sword in the hands of your Majesty.

"I am your Majesty's good brother,

"NAPOLEON.

"SEDAN, *September* 1, 1870."

LETTER OF KING WILLIAM IN REPLY.

"Sire, my brother:—Regretting the circumstances under which we meet, I accept the sword of your Majesty, and I invite you to designate one of your officers, provided with full powers to treat for the capitulation of the army which has so bravely fought under your command. On my side I have named General Moltke for this purpose.

"I am your Majesty's good brother,

"WILHELM.

"Before SEDAN, *September* 1, 1870."

ARTICLES OF CAPITULATION.

"Sedan, September 2d.—By the chief of the staff of his Majesty King William, Commander-in-chief of the German armies, and the General Commanding-in-chief of the French armies, both with full powers from his Majesty the King and the Emperor of the French, the following agreement has been concluded.

"ART. I. The French army, under the command of General Wimpffen, surrounded actually by superior forces around Sedan, are prisoners of war.

"ART. II. Owing to the valorous defense of that army, an exception (exemption) is made for all the generals and officers, and for the superior employés having rank of officers in the military list, who will give their word of honor in writing not to take up arms against Germany, nor to act in any way against the interests of that nation, till the end of the present war. The officers and employés accepting that condition will keep their arms and the effects belonging to them personally.

"ART. III. All the other arms and army material, consisting of flags, eagles, cannons, horses, war ammunitions, military trains, will be surrendered at Sedan by a military commission named by the Commander-in-chief, to be given at once, to the German commissary.

"ART. IV. The town of Sedan will be given up at once, in its present state, and no later than the evening of the 2d of September, to be put at the disposal of the King of Prussia.

"ART. V. The officers who will not take the engagement mentioned in Article II, and the troops of the armies, will be marched out rauged according to their regiments, in their corps, and in military order.

"The measure will commence on the 2d of September, and terminate on the 3d; the soldiers will be brought up by the Meuse, near D'Yzes, and put in the hands of the German commissary by their officers, who will then give their commands to their non-commissioned officers. The military surgeons will remain, without exception, at the rear, to take care of the wounded.

(Signed) "WIMPFFEN,
"VON MOLTKE."

CHAPTER X.

NAPOLEON'S MILITARY PLAN.

Number of troops Prussia was able to put in the field—Number of men France could put under arms—Troops did not arrive at the rendezvous—First battle—The mitrailleuse—The young prince receives the baptism of fire.

In order to account for a want of success, Napoleon after his capture caused to be made public his military plan for conducting the campaign, which he confided to two of his generals before his departure for the front. "The Emperor states that he knew the Prussians were able to put in the field 900,000, and, with the aid of the southern states of Germany, could count upon 1,000,000 soldiers. France was only able to muster 600,000; and, as the number of fighting men is never more than one-half the actual effective force, Germany was in a position to bring into the field 550,000 men, while France had only about 300,000 to confront the enemy. To compensate for this numerical inferiority, it was necessary for the Emperor, by a rapid movement, to cross the Rhine, separate southern Germany from the North German Confederation, and by the *éclat* of a first success, secure the alliance of Austria and Italy. If he were able to prevent the armies of southern Germany from forming their junction with those of the north, the effective strength of the Prussians would be reduced to 200,000 men; and the disproportion between the number of combatants thus much diminished. If Austria and Italy made common cause with France, then the superiority of numbers would be in her favor. The Emperor's plan of campaign—which he confided, at Paris, to Marshals MacMahon and Lebeuf alone—was to mass 150,000 men at Metz, 100,000 at Strasburg, and 50,000 at the camp of Chalons. The concentration of the first two armies, one on the Saar, and the other on the Rhine, did not reveal his projects; for the enemy was left in uncertainty as to whether the attack would be made against the Rhenish Provinces or upon the Duchy of Baden. As soon as the troops should have been concentrated at the points indicated, it was the Emperor's purpose immediately to

unite the two armies of Metz and Strasburg ; and at the head of 250,000 men, to cross the Rhine at Maxan, leaving at his right the fortress of Rastadt, and at his left that of Germersheim. Reaching the other side of the Rhine, he would have forced the states of the South to observe neutrality, and would then have hurried on to encounter the Prussians.

Whilst this movement was in course of execution, the 50,000 men at Châlons, under the command of Marshal Canrobert, were to proceed to Metz, to protect the rear of the army and guard the northeastern frontier. At the same time the French fleet cruising in the Baltic would have held stationary, in the north of Prussia, a part of the enemy's forces, obliged to defend the coasts threatened with invasion.

We shall soon see why this scheme could not be executed, important as it was that Napoleon should assume the offensive. It was on the 28th of July, nearly a fortnight after the declaration of war, that the Emperor reached his headquarters at Metz. But, even then, for a week nothing was heard of him.

During that week the German hosts had been mustering from the extremities of the Fatherland. The Twelfth Army Corps of the North German Confederation, with the Prussian Guard Corps d' Armeé, the Bavarian Field Army, and the Würtemberg and Baden Divisions, were formed into three armies, and placed under the command of General Von Steinmetz, Prince Frederic Charles of Prussia, and his cousin, the Crown-prince. The largest of these armies, that of Prince Frederic Charles, assembled at Mayence. The corps of Steinmetz united about Treves, and the Crown-prince's army, which included the South German troops, met near Landau.

This disposition, made in such perfect secrecy that, as the Emperor pathetically complains in the work to which we have referred, the French never could tell where the enemy was—was planned in order that if the Emperor should advance from Metz through the Vosges, he should be confronted at or before Mayence, by the army of Prince Frederic Charles, nearly equal to his own in strength.

But the Emperor's movements were still delayed. Some observers said that he hesitated ; others that he had no plan. He himself has declared that at this time the forces on which he had counted were not forthcoming. With reference to this particular period he has written.

"The army of Metz, instead of 150,000 men, only mustered 100,000 ; that of Strasburg only 40,000, instead of 100,000 ; while the corps of Marshal Canrobert had still one division at Paris, and another at Soissons ; his artillery, as well as his cavalry, was not ready. Further, no army corps was even yet completely furnished with the equipments necessary for taking the field. The Emperor gave precise orders to the effect that the

arrival of the missing regiments should be hastened; but he was obeyed slowly, excuse being made that it was impossible to leave Algeria, Paris, and Lyons, without garrisons.

Such were some of the causes of the Emperor's inaction. But they were not, they could not be known, in Paris. There it was firmly believed that at any moment the armies of the empire, at a word from their chief, might descend like an avalanche on Germany, and impatience was expressed because that word remained unspoken. To give a temporary satisfaction to this feeling, the Emperor, knowing the deficiencies of his own army, and, as he has since admitted, in complete ignorance of the positions of his enemy, determined upon a movement which for an instant seemed to announce the opening of the campaign. By the beginning of August, the Imperial Guard had joined Bazaine at Metz; Canrobert had moved from Châlons to Nancy; and MacMahon's corps was advancing from Strasburg to the Lauter.

The military leaders of Germany had exerted themselves to the utmost to be able to oppose the advance of the French, and were aided by a military and patriotic enthusiasm, which veterans and the students of history could liken to nothing but that which glowed during the War of Liberation.

Every day saw enormous accessions to the armies of Prince Frederic Charles, and General Von Steinmetz; and although, when the French at length stirred themselves, there still remained some corps whose numbers were not complete, the great German army, united under the King of Prussia, was officially declared to be ready for war.

On the 2nd of August, the Emperor left Metz by railroad for Forbach, taking with him the prince Imperial. His majesty has since stated that the business of the day was to ascertain the numbers and position of the enemy. From Forbach the Emperor proceeded at once in the direction of Saarbruck, a Prussian frontier town, occupied by a small advanced guard. A French division, under General Bataille, carried the heights of Speichern, on the right of Saarbruck, without difficulty; and the Prussians, after a resistance which had no military object, withdrew to their next line of defense. The affair lasted only from 11 in the forenoon until 2 P.M., and after it the Emperor returned to Metz to dinner. But as the battle had been fought for political reasons, care was taken to give it importance. No battle could be insignificant at which the Emperor had been present, and the despatches transmitted to Paris announced therein a victory with two interesting features. The mitrailleuse gun, from which so much was expected, had been tried, and the prince Imperial had received his "baptism of fire." Ten mitrailleuses were in battery, and at each discharge, it was said, the enemy's battalions were mowed down. The

French newspapers declared that the moral effect of this victory must be immense. It appeared, however, that some of their own correspondents. venturing into Saarbruck on the very afternoon of the day when the French were supposed to have taken the place, were arrested by the pickets of the Prussians, who had returned, after an absence of two hours ; that the railway, which it was supposed the French had wished to occupy, or at least to cut, was entire ; and that the forest behind Saarbruck was alive with Prussian troops. Greater events were soon to make the world indifferent to the incidents of this smallest of *promenades militaires.*

CHAPTER XI.

ON TO PARIS.

Paris invested—Number of troops engaged in the siege—Length of the siege—Coronation of Emperor William—Trochu's sortie—Armistice.

FROM the time of the first victories of the Germans around Metz, "*On to Paris*" was the cry of the German army. The surrender of Sedan, and capture of the Emperor, gave a new impetus to forces, and left a large army free to increase the numbers who were already in front of Paris, or on the way to the doomed city ; so that, by the middle of October, the whole country around Paris was one grand camp, where an army of two hundred and fifty thousand men had set down to wait till the supplies of the city were exhausted and the garrison starved into surrender. The Emperor had been taken prisoner, the Empress had fled, and a Republican Government had been formed. The investment of Paris was commenced on the 17th of September, and the iron circle was soon complete. It was supposed that fifteen or twenty days would be the extent of the siege. But the 17th of January, four months, witnessed the city surrounded by a German army which had been increased to about three hundred thousand men, and King William, the commander in chief, with his head-quarters at the Palace of Versailles, where, on the 18th of January, surrounded by all the German Princes and other heads of his immense army, he was proclaimed Emperor of United Germany. On the 19th, the day after the coronation, the French made a grand and last sortie under General Trochu, at the head of one hundred thousand men, with the intention of going to Versailles. At 11 A.M., they encountered the enemy, and a sharp battle occurred, and was continued till night. The French lost in this battle six thousand men, and the next day, the 20th, they withdrew into the city.

On the 27th, Jules Favre and Count Bismarck signed an armistice, to continue for three weeks.

Principal conditions of the armistice. The armistice is to begin in Paris at once, and in the departments in three days, and is to expire on the 19th of February, at noon. (This armistice was extended to the 12th of March). The National Assembly met at Bordeaux to-day at 4.30 P.M. In the midst of the most profound silence, M. Thiers rose and spoke as follows:

"We have accepted a painful mission, and after having used all possible endeavors, we come with regret to submit for your approval a bill for which we ask urgency. 'Art. I. The National Assembly, forced by necessity, is not responsible, and adopts the preliminaries of peace, signed at Versailles, on the 26th of February.'"

At this point M. Thiers was overpowered by his feelings, and obliged to descend from the tribune, and leave the room. M. Barthelemy St. Hilaire continued to read the preliminaries.

"1. France renounces in favor of the German Empire the following rights. The fifth part of Lorraine, including Metz and Thionville, and Alsace, less Belfort.

"2. France will pay the sum of five milliards of francs, of which one milliard is to be paid in 1871, and the remaining four milliards by installments extending over three years.

"3. The German troops will begin to evacuate the French territory as soon as the treaty is ratified. They will then evacuate the interior of Paris, and some departments lying in the western region. The evacuation of the other departments will take place gradually, after payment of the first milliard, and proportionately to the other four milliards.

"Interest at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum, will be paid on the amount remaining due, from the date of the ratification of the treaty.

"4. The German troops will not levy any requisitions in the department occupied by them, but will be maintained at the cost of France.

"5. A delay will be granted to the inhabitants of the territories annexed, to choose between the two nationalities.

"6. Prisoners of war will be immediately set at liberty.

"7. Negotiations for a definite Treaty of Peace will be opened at Brussels after the ratification of the treaty.

"8. The administrations of the departments occupied by the German troops will be intrusted to French officials, but under the control of the chief of the German Corps of Occupation.

"9. The present treaty confers upon the Germans no rights whatever, in the territories not occupied.

"10. The treaty will have to be ratified by the National Assembly of France."

CHAPTER XII.

BATTLE OF COULMIERS.

The only one in which the French were victorious—Battle of Coulmiers—Capitulation of Metz.

THE battle of Coulmiers, compared with the great battles, is of so insignificant a character that it would not merit mention here, were it not for the fact that it was the only one during this sanguinary war in which the French achieved a victory. The French army under Paladines numbered 80,000 men. The German army numbered 25,000 and was under the command of Von der Tann. The battle commenced on the morning of the 9th of November, and was waged till darkness brought it to a close. The Germans were driven from the field, and most of their ammunition, baggage, and ambulance trains fell into the hands of the French.

The losses on the part of the French. were 2,000 killed and wounded. The Germans lost 709. This was the first and only battle in which the Germans were defeated, and the only one in which they did not far outnumber the French.

Here they fought all day with three to one against them, and though beaten, they retired in good order into Orleans.

CAPITULATION OF METZ.

On the 27th of October, Marshal Bazaine surrendered the stronghold of Metz, after a seven weeks' siege.

Three marshals—Bazaine, Canrobert, and Lebeuf—fifty generals (amongst whom were Frossard, Decean, and L'Admirault), over 6,000 officers, and 173,000 men, laid down their arms; 400 pieces of artillery, 100 mitrailleuses, and 53 eagles were taken; 10,000 French troops, guarded by 1,600 Germans, were sent off per day through Saarlouis, whence they were sent on by rail to Treves.

It is very singular that in the month of October, 1552, Metz was surrounded by German troops under the Emperor Charles V., and underwent a siege of precisely the same duration—seventy days—but with opposite results, for, at the expiration of that period, the German forces retired, baffled and defeated.

We read that Metz, Toul, and Verdun, were wrested from Germany by Henry II. of France. Metz was taken from the Germans 318 years ago.

BAZAINE'S VINDICATION.

Marshal Bazine, in a letter written to the *Echo du Nord* of this date says:

"I have read your political bulletin of the 1st of November, in which you refer to M. Gambetta's proclamation. You are right; the Army of the Rhine would not have obeyed a traitor. The only answer I shall make to this lying lucubration is to send you the order of the day (already published) which was addressed to the army, after the councils of war held on the 26th and 28th of October. M. Gambetta does not seem to be aware of what he is saying, or of the position in which the Army of Metz was placed, when he stigmatises, as he does, its chief, who struggled for three months against forces double those at his disposal, and whose effective strength was always kept up.

"I received no communications from the government at Tours, notwithstanding the efforts made to place ourselves in relation. The army of Metz had 1 marshal, 24 generals, 2,140 officers, and 42,350 men struck by the enemy's fire, and it made itself respected in every fight in which it engaged. Such an army could not be composed of traitors and cowards. Famine and disorganization alone caused the arms to fall from the hands of the 65,000 real combatants who remained. The artillery and cavalry were without horses, it having been necessary to kill them to alleviate the privations of the army. Had the latter not displayed such energy and patriotism, it would have had to succumb in the first fortnight of October, when the rations were already reduced to 300 grammes, the latter on to 250 grammes of bad bread. Add to this dark picture the fact of there being 20,000 sick and wounded, with their medicines on point of failing, and themselves suffering from the effects of the torrential rains. France has always been deceived as to our position. I know not why, but the truth will one day prevail. We are conscious of having done our duty."

CHAPTER XIII.

FLIGHT OF THE EMPRESS.

Flight of the Empress—Opinions of the French—Why the French were frequently surprised—A French officer's views of the war—French and German losses—Prices of food during the siege of Paris.

THE Empress of France arrived at Ryde, Isle of Wight, in the *Gazelle* cutter yacht, belonging to Lieut. Col. Sir John Burgoyne, and left for Hastings, for the purpose of joining her son.

The escape of the Empress was as follows: Immediately upon the deposing of Napoleon it was evident that the Tuileries was no longer a safe residence for her, and, among many signs of this fact, the plundering of the imperial apartments, and her own private effects, by the

servants of the imperial household, was not the least significant. It appears that when the Empress made her way out of the Tuileries by the gate next the Seine, she was escorted by Prince Metternich, and by one or two other gentlemen; but unfortunately, the crowd was so great that she was almost immediately separated from them. While thus alone in the mob she was recognized by a little gamin, who no sooner cried out "*Voila l'Imperatrice,*" than some of the crowd exclaimed in a threatening way "*A la guillotine!—A la guillotine!*" Just at this moment, however, fortune stood her friend: for, as the crowd surged this way and that, she dived into the thickest of it, and those who raised the savage cry lost all sight and trace of her. Eventually she found her way to the house of a friend, but it was not such an easy thing to effect her exit from Paris. She was advised, and she resolved, not to try the railway, for fear of being recognized; and at length she was glad to find a market-cart which was returning into Normandy. In this cart she secured a seat, and in it she spent the best part of three days and two nights before she saw the Channel, in the neighborhood of Trouville, where she was at once received on board the yacht of Sir J. M. Burgoyne, then about to sail for England.

Opinions of the French.

The following letter from a French soldier, was written on the 15th December:

"My Dear Parents:

"I am quite well, but I have lost all hope that France can recover from the blows which she has received.

"You may say to all those who chatter about politics, that France is conquered and betrayed, and that she will be again. Why? Because three dragons rule in France: indifference, ignorance of military art, and party spirit, which devours, and will devour France. Panic is in the French army: all the chiefs cry to the soldiers, *sauve qui peut.* First, national indifference: no one cares for aught but himself. National unity is extinct. Our chiefs at the table, at the café, in the billiard-room at play—behold their life! They dream of nothing but to parade and to gossip; the rest are becoming even more depraved; from the smallest chief, who is called the lieutenant, to the general, there are none but the ignorant and imbecile. All who are conscious of their duty, groan in despair. What has become of the French of former times? They are dead! The more a people is enriched, the less solid is the empire or kingdom. There is no more submission, no more discipline. Without discipline no army is possible. Everybody demands peace. What will be done; what will become of us? We are about to perish under the ruins of France, ruined by luxury, pride, and jealousy.

"The pride of the soldier makes him think himself greater than his chief. Confidence lost, ruin, destruction! What shall we do with peace? What shall we be? We shall only seek to hide our shame; and, besides, the parties will continue to devour us. Civil war is inevitable, enormous imposts requisitions, etc.

"We have lost 400,000 men during this campaign, and we have not gained one victory. . . . .

Why the French were so often surprised.

"I have followed MacMahon from the day when I found him reorganizing his army at Châlons, to the fatal day at Sedan, when he surrendered the last organized force in France, save the remnant of that which is shut up in Metz. Certainly, when I was at the camp of Châlons, and then at Rheims, I had observed that the number of stragglers was enormous, and I continually met soldiers who did not know where their regiments were. I had seen men and officers disabled by wounds which French soldiers of other days would have despised; I had remarked how untidy and careless the men were allowed to be about their dress and equipments. These things slight, but significant, to a military eye, had caused me, no doubt, some misgivings as to the rapidity of the success we had a right to expect. I saw also how prone French officers were to avoid the fatigues of long marches, and the discomfort of bivouac. I remember how often I have traversed the French lines at dead of night and at early dawn, and never heard a challenge, never came across a French vidette, never have fallen in with a party of scouts. On the other hand, I have seen officers spend the time that ought to have been given to their men, in cafés or in poor village inns. Often even officers of the staff seemed to neglect their duties for paltry amusements, showing themselves ignorant sometimes of the name of the Department in which they were; so that I have known a French general obliged to ask his way from peasants at the meeting of two roads. I struggled long against all this kind of evidence, but the end is only too clear. Painful it is to me, but I am bound to declare my belief, that any further effort France may make can only cause useless bloodshed, and that a means of escape from her peril must now be sought otherwise than by force of arms."

A French officer's views of the war.

The Emperor butchers 250,000 French and German.

A distinguished officer, William de Roban, writing to a British journal thus unmasks the real situation:

"It seems incredible, from what we as yet know, that any one man could so deliberately have plunged a country suddenly into war with not

one single arm of the naval or military services really prepared, but such is the fact; and it was within my personal observation at the camp lately, that whole divisions went into action in a literally famishing condition, as well as deficient in drill and general inefficiency. Of about 450,000 men sent to the front, up to September 1, it is my serious opinion from ocular evidence, that not over 200,000 were really in a state of discipline or drill fit to face even an ordinary army let alone such an army as that of confederate Germany. "Turcos" and "mitrailleuses" alone were relied on as balancing all and every deficiency, and when the irresistible impetuosity of the Germans demolished those two military fallacies—for such I hold them to be—why, the collapse was fearful, terrible beyond precedent. I believe it quite within the mark to set down the number *hors de combat* of the two armies, French and German, at not less than 400,000, of which fully 250,000 are dead, or badly maimed for life; of the numbers killed outright, it is not easy to speak definitely, as fully fifty per cent. of the merely wounded perished on the field where they fell, from want of ambulance and hospital care. I remember seeing one trench fully a kilomètre long, wherein at least 10,000 German and French dead were indiscriminately huddled, many bodies not yet quite cold.

"People are naturally saddened, not despairing, but quite the other way, though in my humble opinion I believe Paris utterly indefensible under the circumstances, and against such an army as the German; but there is no one to utter the word "surrender," and if the Germans will persist in attacking Paris, why they will only enter it as Sebastapol was entered. I believe there is no gasconade in the determination thus expressed, and I cannot help thinking that Germany will eventually regret a war of extermination against a nation which was literally driven blindfolded into it, like sheep to the slaughter. War is one thing, but this campaign has been butchery, not war."

French Losses.

This remarkable war has some features that are unparalleled in the history of warfare. In about six months it has been estimated that the killed and wounded exceeded 400,000 men, 250,000 of whom are dead.

In all, the Germans captured over 600,000 prisoners, a number nearly equal to the conquering army.

In the great battles near Metz, Mars-La-Tour, and Gravelotte, the French losses were about 40,000, and the Germans lost about 46,000.

From August 2d to September 22, the French lost 208,726 men, and 2,616 officers. In the month of January alone, over 300,000. The amount of stores, arms, and ammunition captured at Sedan and Metz, was very large.

German Losses.

On the part of the Germans the losses were mostly killed and wounded. They lost 12 generals, about 3,000 commissioned officers, and about 67,000 sergeants and privates.

Prices of Food in Paris during the Siege.

On the 13th of January, the following quotations of prices of food were made.

No horse-meat in market.

Mule meat	$2.00 per pound,
Cats	4.00 each,
Dogs	1.50 per pound,
Rats	1.00 per pair,
Turkey	50.00 each.

Weather exceedingly cold. Fuel gone. People burning fences and furniture. Oil exhausted. City in darkness.

Mortality.

Before the war the extent of mortality in Paris was 900 per week. The week ending 20th January, it was 4,465.

Entrance of the Germans into Paris.

March 1st, Paris.—Portions of the 6th and 11th Prussian Army Corps, and of the 1st Bavarian Army Corps were reviewed by the Emperor of Germany at the Hippodrome, and the advanced guards of those corps under General Kamecke entered this city this morning at 8 A.M.

No disturbances of any kind occurred. There was great excitement throughout, yesterday, in consequence of the National Guards having, without orders, removed the guns from the Place Wagram, near the quarter to be occupied by the German troops, to the Place des Vosges, which is some distance from that quarter.

The Mayors of Paris met on the 27th, at noon, at the Ministry of the Interior, under the presidency of M. Picard. The barracks of the Louvre and the Elysée were to be evacuated by the French troops. The *National* and the *Moniteur Universal*, which suspended their publication on the day of the Germans entry, were the only newspapers which would appear during the occupation.

On Monday, the Prussians learnt from the *Journal Officiel*, and from a proclamation of the Minister of the Interior posted on the walls, that the entrance of the German troops was definitely arranged to take place at ten o'clock on Wednesday morning, and that the quarter they would occupy, was that comprised between the Seine and the Rue du Faubourg

St. Honoré, extending to the Rue Royale, and the Place de la Concorde. It was, moreover, announced that all the French troops would be transferred to the opposite side of the river, for such period as the occupation lasted. The newspapers counselled moderation and the absence of demonstrations, except purely negative ones, and set example of the latter by proclaiming their intention to suspend publication so long as the Germans remained in Paris. The managers of the few theatres now open were invited to close their establishments, and it was suggested that even the cafés on the boulevards should refrain from opening. The authorities were also appealed to, to close the public museums, and the inhabitants generally were urged to shut up their shops and remain within doors with curtains drawn or shutters closed. An order from General Venoy confided the preservation of order to patrols of the National Guard in their respective arrondissements. The first military Germans who came in at a quarter past eight, were a party of six troopers, led by a young officer (Lieutenant Bershardy, 14th Prussian Hussars), who rode through the Place de l'Etoile, going round the Arc de Triomphe. The chains had not then been removed from the circle of posts that surround the arch, or he might have passed under it. He was presently joined by Captain Von Colond, in command of the squadron which rode quietly down the great Avenue of the Champs Elysée, escorting General Von Kamecke and his staff, to the palace of Queen Christiana of Spain, appointed for the General's headquarters. Another detachment of soldiers at the same time took possession of the empty Palace de l'Industrie, which was to be occupied by the Bavarian troops, while the Cirque Imperial was appropriated to lodging the Prussian troops. The different avenues through the Champs Elysée, and the entrance from the Bois de Boulogne were also put under strict guard. Not more than two or three score people, some of them foreigners, others women and street boys, were spectators of the entry of the Germans at that early hour. Between nine and ten o'clock more troops came into the Champs Elysée; the main body, however, came in at one o'clock, after the review held by the German Emperor in the Bois de Boulogne. They were the 6th and 11th Prussian Corps—Hartmann's Bavarians, the Prussian Guards, including the infantry, jagers, schutzen or rifles, Leib Regiment or King's Own, detachments of cavalry, cuirassiers, Uhlans, dragoons, and huzzars, field-artillery, and engineers of the guard, and some of the siege artillery, and engineers. The entire number was about 30,000.

The review took place in the Hippodrome, or race-course of Longchamps, in the Bois de Boulogne, commencing at eleven o'clock. The Emperor—King William II., was received, on his arrival from Versailles, by his Imperial Highness Field-Marshal, the Crown Prince of Prussia and

Prince Imperial of Germany, commander of the Third Army, by which Paris was invested, and to which it capitulated.

At 11.20 he saluted and took up his post on the left hand and a little in the rear of the King. The force which wason the ground consisted of 11,000 men of the 6th Corps (Von Tumpling), 11,000 men of the 11th Corps (Von Schachtmeyer), and 8,000 men 2d Bavarians (Hartmann). The King never moved his eyes off the troops, except when he spoke to the Crown Prince, and to the officers who joined his staff as the regiments marched past. Count Bismarck, was in the crowd of officers a hundred yards away or more, and did not approach his Majesty during the march past. The King, with the Crown Prince and the other German princes attended by a very numerous staff, rode along the whole front, loudly cheered by all the soldiers. After the review his Majesty and the Crown Prince returned to Versailles, while the troops marched across the Bois de Boulogne, past the Arc de Triomphe, and through the Champs Elysée, a portion of them reaching the Place de la Concorde.

Conclusion.

The war had two stages : the first terminated at the surrender of Napoleon and MacMahon's army at Sedan ; the second period filled up the interval from the surrender of the Emperor and the conclusion of peace. During the first, the war was carried on against the regular army of France, and resulted in its capture and removal of nearly all into Germany. Bazaine and MacMahon moved into the Rhenish provinces with about 300,000 men ; these were captured or shut up in Metz by the second day of September.

After the capture of the Emperor, the French chambers passed acts deposing Napoleon and forming a government of defense.

The French forces in the field at this juncture, were widely scattered, a large body was near Amiens in the North, and another in the West under the command of General Paladines, relieved by Gambetta and succeeded by Chanzy, This force was divided, one part remaining under Chanzy, and the other was commanded by Bourbaki. The first was attacked and routed by the Germans. Bourbaki moved with his division from Orleans to Bruges and Belfort, and after having been badly beaten, retreated with the demoralized remnant of his army into Switzerland.

The movements of these armies were designed to direct and draw off the German armies besieging Paris, break through their lines, and relieve the city. They not only found themselves powerless to raise the siege but they were speedily destroyed.

Result.

This most remarkable war terminated in the complete unification of Germany, and the most signal defeat of France—proud France, whom, a few years ago the nations feared and respected, now lies completely at the mercy of her rival Prussia.

The causes of this defeat may be sought in the moral and intellectual condition of the people. The Empire under Louis Napoleon, had been for eighteen years preparing the nation for this terrible shock.

It has been said that a "nation that builds forts instead of school-houses ought to be conquered." However true this may be, the erection of school-houses, and the spread of intelligence does not avert war. Religious men and especially a large class known as peace-men, who regarded war as the relics of a barbarous age were hugging the delusive doctrine, that the spread of intelligence and the principles of christianity had forever banished the possibility of war between civilized nations, while good men in all countries were willing to hope that the doctrine might be realized. The world was startled with the civil war in the United States of North America. And scarcely had they time to breathe before two of the most powerful and highly civilized nations of Europe were plunged into a bloody, devastating war.

To attempt to account for a want of success of peace-doctrine, and to show why negotiations without resort to the sword cannot settle the difficulties between nations, is not the province of this brief article. Experience, however, has shown that negotiation in settling the disputes of nations avails little, unless it is well seasoned with the means, to enforce demands, or to cripple the power or waste the substance of each other.

It has been stated that the Empire of France under Napoleon, for years had been maturing, and preparing itself for its terrible end. Indeed it had become dead ripe, and had been for years in a state of decay at the core while the surface remained fair.

Paris was France; her walls, her impregnable fortresses, her broad boulevards, made insurrection and barricades apparently impossible; while millions upon millions, wrested from a tax-ridden people, were wasted upon the support of a showy army, to erect splendid quarters for it, and to support a church organization which ought to be self-sustaining. Nothing was done for the masses. A splendid court, and splendid holiday shows, parades, and reviews, amused and diverted the simple-minded masses. Nothing was done to make the peasantry, and the lower classes in the cities more intelligent; hence they remained the ready tools for any master.

Though the masses were kept quiet, the educated and intelligent classes not immediately connected with the government, were uneasy and restive. From them a constant growl went up to the throne, and Louis

Napoleon felt that he was over a volcano, which the first favorable circumstance would explode; hence France became a nation of spies. France could boast of learned men, and the sovereign encouraged savants to remain in the Empire, and offered inducements for others to come. But the congregation of a few philosophers and scientific men, cannot give a nation intelligence, Education must reach the masses. The people must be rendered intelligent and capable of being trusted. Napoleon had no confidence in the people; paid spies and informers invaded the sanctity of the most private circles; men became not only suspicious of their neighbors, but of their most intimate friends and relations, and lack of confidence grew into a most formidable social evil.

The so-called Plebiscitum was a gigantic farce, and its repetition became a fraud. A nation in this condition is not likely to possess the patriotism, the fortitude, and patient endurance necessary to carry on a a successful war.

Yet Napoleon, either deceived as to the condition of his people, or wanting the penetration and foresight which a great statesman and ruler ought to possess, plunged France into a war, in which she was beaten in every battle but one, lost her entire army, with vast amounts of stores, arms, ammunition, and other war material, and in six months was prostrate at the foot of her enemy. The nation in political and financial ruin, saddled with an enormous war debt, compelled to cede territory, and to pay large sums to Prussia for indemnification—thus we find France at the close of the war. What is to be the end? Has France entered her decadence? Is a first class-power to fade away? Is France like Greece and Rome henceforth to become renowned only for what she has been? Are the monuments of her former greatness to be found only in her ruins?

When the news that France had declared war upon Prussia reached us, the American press and the people very generally took sides with Prussia, denouncing Napoleon, considering the war altogether unprovoked and aggressive. But when the Emperor surrendered and France promptly deposed him and formed a republic, the tone of the press changed, every American heart rejoiced, and the right hand of fellowship was at once extended to our ancient friend and ally.

It remains to be seen whether they have chosen the best form of government.

The general belief is that the masses are not sufficiently enlightened to make a republic practicable. It was the opinion of Lafayette that a constitutional monarchy, surrounded by republican institutions, was best suited to the condition of the nation in his day, and so far as the spread of intelligence among the masses is concerned, France to-day is much as it was then.

Whatever the form may be, its practice must be liberal. It must provide for the separation of Church and State, proclaim full liberty of conscience, give freedom to the press, elevate the masses by establishing schools, and spreading intelligence among the people.

What God in his providence is working out through this nation's calamities is not yet apparent. Let us hope and pray that his mercy may be extended to her, and that purified by sufferings and afflictions, she may rise from her abasement, and having been restored to her place among the nations, she may in future exert her power and influence in the cause of human freedom, and a broader civilization.

GEOGRAPHICAL APPENDIX.

AUSTRIA AND HUNGARY.

AUSTRIA, meaning simply East Dominion, got its name about 1040. The Hapsburgs became Archdukes of Austria in 1273, and having gained the imperial crown of Germany, they never let it leave their family. In 1804 the Emperor of Germany exchanged that title for the present one, Emperor of Austria.

When, in the time of the Crusades, Austria was a little dukedom, Hungary was a great kingdom, stretching from the Carpathians to the Adriatic. Now, Austria is a great empire, extending its despotic rule over wider limits than those of Old Hungary.

Austerlitz, a village in Moravia, 13 miles southwest of Brunn. Here Napoleon utterly routed the Austrians and Russians, in December, 1805.

Buda, forming, with Pesth, the capital of Hungary. The towns face each other on opposite banks of the Danube, Buda being on the west side. It is 135 miles southeast of Vienna.

Dalmatia, a strip along the east shore of the Adriatic; a part of old Illyricum, now belonging to Austria.

Debreczin, on a sandy plain, 114 miles east of Pesth. It is a great centre of commerce for northern and eastern Hungary.

Eger, a town in the northwest of Bohemia, on the Eger, a tributary of the Elbe. Here Wallenstein was murdered in 1634.

Innspruck, the capital of Tyrol, on the Inn, 240 miles southwest of Vienna. Here Charles V. was nearly surprised by Maurice of Saxony in 1552.

Istria, a peninsula jutting into the Adriatic, between the Gulf of Trieste and that of Quarnero. Venice held it till 1797. It was ceded to Napoleon by the treaty of Presburg in 1805.

Kolin, a Bohemian town, 37 miles from Prague. Here Frederic the Great was defeated in 1757 by Daun.

Olmutz, the old capital of Moravia, on the March, 105 miles northeast of Vienna. Frederic besieged it without success in 1758.

Pesth.—See *Buda*.

Prague, the capital of Bohemia, on the Moldau, a branch of the Elbe. The scene of a battle during the Thirty Years' War, in 1620, and of another more celebrated fight in 1757.

Presburg, a Hungarian town on the Danube, 33 miles east of Vienna. Here, in 1741, the Hungarians rallied bravely round Maria Theresa; and here a treaty was signed between France and Austria after the battle of Austerlitz.

Schönbrunn, a palace, 2 miles from Vienna. It gives its name to the treaty of 1809. Here Napoleon's son, Duc de Reichstadt, died in 1832.

Temeswar, a town of southern Hungary, capital of the Banat, on the Bega Canal. Here Haynau utterly defeated the Magyars in 1849.

Theiss (once Tibiscus), a northern tributary of the Danube, flowing through the plain of Hungary.

Trent, a town in Tyrol, on the Adige.

Here the Council of Trent sat from 1545 to 1562.

Vienna (Roman name, Vindobona), the capital of Austria, on the Danube. It was occupied twice by the victorious Napoleon. From its central position it may be called "the diplomatic capital of Europe."

Wagram, a village a few miles from Vienna, where Napoleon won a great victory over the Austrians in 1809.

FRANCE.

France means the land of the Franks. After the time of Charlemagne, a number of independent duchies grew up round the kingdom of France, which were gradually absorbed by the central power. Chief of these were Aquitaine, Burgundy, and Bretagne. The English, too, held a large part of France for four centuries (1066–1450). But, under the houses of Valois and Bourbon, France grew strong. Napoleon I. spread her frontiers for a time far past their natural limits. But now they have returned to more reasonable bounds. Savoy and Nice are the latest acquisitions of territory.

Ajaccio, a seaport in the west of Corsica, which was the birthplace of Napoleon I. Corsica was sold by the Genoese to Louis XV. of France.

Albi, a town of Languedoc, on the Tarn, from which the Protestants of southern France were called Albigenses.

Alsace, a province in the east of France, consisting of two departments, Upper and Lower Rhine. It was ceded to France by the treaty of Westphalia, in 1648.

Amiens, a town of northern France, on the Somme, which gave its name to the hollow peace of 1802.

Aquitaine, a duchy of old France, filling the south and west. Its northern boundary was the Loire. Distinct from this territory was Septimania, the strip of Mediterranean shore between the Rhone and the Pyrenees.

Arles, on a hill above the Rhone, 35 miles northwest of Marseilles. It is noted for its Roman antiquities.

Arques, a town of northern France, 4 miles southeast of Dieppe. Here Henry IV. defeated Mayenne in 1589.

Autun (once Augustodunum), a town near Lyons, which was a scene of the sixth Christian persecution. It was then noted for armor and arrows.

Avignon, a town of southern France, on the Rhone, near its mouth. Here the popes held their court for seventy-two years (1305–1377).

Bayonne, a town in Low Pyrenees, situated where the Nive and the Adour meet. It was fortified by Vauban, and there the bayonet was invented. Alva and Catherine de Medici had a meeting at Bayonne in 1565.

Beziers, a town of Languedoc, 8 miles from the Mediterranean. It was the scene of a massacre during the Albigensian war, in 1209.

Bidassoa, a river flowing from the Pyrenees into the Bay of Biscay, and forming part of the line between France and Spain.

Boulogne, a port of northern France, on the Sienne. Here Napoleon gathered a flotilla for the invasion of England in 1804.

Brest, a town and harbor in the extreme west of Bretagne. It is one of the chief naval stations of France.

Brienne, a town of Champagne, near the Aube, noted for its military school, where Napoleon I. was educated.

Caen, the capital of Lower Normandy, on the Orne, 125 miles west of Paris. Here William the Conqueror was buried.

Cambray, a strongly fortified town of northern France, on the Scheldt. Here the

treaty of Cambray, between Charles V. and Francis I., was framed.

Cannes, a port on the Mediterranean, near which Napoleon landed from Elba in 1815.

Carcassonne, a city of Languedoc, on the Aude, noted for its brave defence by the Albigenses in 1209.

Chalons, a town of northern France, on the Marne. The scene of Attila's defeat by a Roman and Gothic army in 451.

Clermont, a town of central France, in Auvergne. Here a council met in 1095, to stir up the First Crusade.

Crespy, a town in the department of Oise, 12 miles south of Compeigne. It gave its name to a treaty in 1544, between Charles V. and Francis I.

Cressy, a village of Picardy, 95 miles northwest of Paris. The scene of a famous English victory in 1346.

Dreux, a town 45 miles southwest of Paris, where the first battle in the Huguenot war was fought in 1562.

Dunkirk, a seaport in the extreme north of France. When taken from Spain in 1658, it was given up to Cromwell, but was sold to France by Charles II., in 1662.

Fontainebleau, a town 37 miles southeast of Paris, celebrated for its palace and forest. Here, in 1814, Napoleon signed his first abdication.

Fontenaille, near Auxerre, in Burgundy, where, in 841, was fought a battle between Lothaire and his brothers, Charles and Louis.

Ham, a fortress of Picardy, 70 miles northeast of Paris, where Louis Napoleon lay in prison, 1840–46.

Havre de Grace, a port at the mouth of the Seine, 109 miles northwest of Paris. It was given up to Elizabeth of England by the Huguenots, but held by her a very short time.

Ivry, a village east of St. André, near the Eure, where the army of the League was beaten by Henri IV. in 1590.

Jarnac, a town in the west of France, on the Charente, where the Huguenots were defeated in 1569.

La Hogue, a Norman headland near Cherbourg, off which the fleet of Louis XIV. was defeated in 1692, by Russell.

Languedoc, a province of southern France, consisting chiefly of the basin of the Garonne. It took its name from the use of *oc* (yes) by the people, when the northerns said *oui*. The scene of the Albigensian war.

La Vendée, a department of western France on the Bay of Biscay, remarkable for its royalist spirit during the great French Revolution.

Lisle, a fortress town of northern France, on the Deule, 130 miles north of Paris. It was taken by Marlborough after his victory at Oudenarde; and vainly besieged by the Austrians in 1792.

Lorraine, or Middle France, derived its name from Lothaire (Lotharingia), to whom it was ceded by the treaty of Verdun (843). It lay between the Rhone, Moselle, and Scheldt on the west, and the Rhine and Alps on the east.

Luneville, a town on the Vezouze, a feeder of the Meurthe, 180 miles east of Paris. Here was concluded, in 1801, a treaty between France and Austria.

Lyons (once Lugdunum), a great city of France, where the Saone meets the Rhone. It was a scene of the sixth persecution of Christians; now famous for its silks.

Malplaquet, a town of Nord, in France, close to Belgium, noted for a victory gained there by Marlborough in 1709.

Mardyk, a seaport 4 miles west of Dunkirk.

Marseilles (once Massilia), a great port on the Mediterranean, 410 miles from Paris. The army of Richard I. embarked here for the Third Crusade. The French Boy Crusade also took ship here; and from this city came some of the wildest spirits of the French Revolution.

Metz, a French garrison town at the junction of the Moselle and Seille. It was ceded to France in 1648.

Montmartre, a hill near Paris, on the right bank of the Seine, which is said to have taken its name from the martyrdom of St. Denis, first bishop of Paris, in 272.

Mulhausen, a French manufacturing town in Haut Rhin, on the Ill, a tributary of the Rhine, 18 miles from Basle. It was a Swiss town till 1793.

Muret, a battle-field, 9 miles from Toulouse, where Montfort beat the Albigenses and their Spanish allies in 1213.

Nantes, a city on the Loire, near its mouth, which gave its name to the edict of Henri IV. in favor of the Huguenots (1598). There was terrible butchery at Nantes by Carrier, during the French Revolution.

Narbonne, a city of southern France, 5 miles from the Mediterranean; much connected with the story of the Albigenses.

Neustria, a division of old Frankland, embracing Belgium, the basin of the Seine, and all western France north of the Loire.

Noyon, in the department of Oise, on the Vorse, a feeder of the Oise. Here Calvin was born.

Orleans (once Aurelianis), a city on the right bank of the Loire, at its most northerly bend. It was besieged by Attila; was a great school in Charlemagne's reign; and was succored in 1428 by Joan of Arc, who was hence called the "Maid of Orleans."

Paris (once Lutetia), on the Seine, 110 miles from its mouth. It is perhaps the gayest and most beautiful city in the world, and yet some of the darkest human tragedies have been enacted in its streets. The fate of Paris decides the fate of France.

Poictiers, a town in the department of Vienne, on the Clain. It was the scene of a famous victory won by the Black Prince over the French in 1356.

Rennes, a city of western France, on the Vilaine.

Rochefort, the third naval station in France, 9 miles from the mouth of the Charente. Close by are the Roads of Aix, where Napoleon went on board the English ship *Bellerophon*, in 1815.

Rochelle, a port of Aunis, in western France. It was taken from the English by Bertrand du Guesclin in 1372; and was held by the Huguenots from 1557 to 1628, when it fell before Richelieu.

Rocroi, a town in Ardennes, near the Meuse, which was the scene of Conde's victory over the Spaniards in 1643.

Rouen, a city on the Seine, capital of Normandy. It was taken by the Norsemen early in the tenth century. Here Joan of Arc was burned.

St. Clair, a town on the Epte, where, in 911, a treaty was concluded, ceding Normandy to Rollo, the Norseman.

St. Cloud, a small town on the Seine, 5 miles west of Paris. It is corrupted from St. Chlodoald, which was the name of a Frankish prince. Noted for its park and palace. Here, in 1799, Napoleon dissolved the Council of Five Hundred.

St. Denis, a small town, 5 miles from Paris. It was the burial-place of the French kings, whose monuments were destroyed during the Revolution, but afterwards restored.

St. Germain en Laye, a town and palace near the Seine, 9 miles northwest of Paris, where a treaty favoring the Huguenots was framed in 1570. Here the deposed James II. of England died.

Toul, a fortress on the Moselle, 167 miles east of Paris. It was ceded to France in 1648, with Metz and Verdun.

Toulon, a strong seaport on the Mediterranean. It suffered much from the Saracen pirates. At its siege by the army of the Republic in 1793, Napoleon Bonaparte first came into public notice.

Toulouse, a city on the Garonne. Here Simon Montfort, terror of the Albigenses, was killed in 1218; and here the last battle of the Peninsular war was fought in 1814.

Tours, a city on the Loire. On an adjacent plain Charles the Hammer defeated the Moslems in 732.

Valenciennes, a town in the north of France, fortified by Vauban. It is famous for lace.

Varennes, a town on the Aire, 15 miles west of Verdun, where Louis XVI. was seized in his flight in 1791.

Vassy, a town in Upper Marne, 115 miles east of Paris, where a terrible massacre of Huguenots took place.

Vendome, a town on the Loir, which falls into the Sarthe about 6 miles above the junction of the latter with the Loire. It was taken and dismantled by Henri IV. during the War of the League.

Verdun, a town on the Meuse, fortified by Vauban. Here, in 843, was concluded a treaty by which Germany and France were declared separate states.

Versailles, a town 10 miles southwest of Paris, famous for the palace of Louis XIV. In October, 1789, a Paris mob, consisting largely of women, broke into the palace.

Vervins, a town in Aisne, on the Serre, 110 miles from Paris. Here, in 1598, peace was made between France and Spain.

Vezelai, a town and hill in Nievre, 117 miles southeast of Paris, where, in 1146, St. Bernard preached the Second Crusade.

Vienne, a town on the Rhone, south of Lyons. A scene of the sixth Christian persecution.

Vincennes, a strong castle, 2 miles east of Paris. Here, in the castle ditch, the Duc d'Enghien was shot by order of Napoleon, in 1804.

GERMANY AND PRUSSIA.

One-half of Charlemagne's empire has grown into modern France, the other half into Germany. The greatest event of modern history, the Reformation, began to unfold itself in Germany; and in this land also, a few years earlier, the sound of the first printing-press was heard. But if Germany has been highly favored, she has suffered much, especially during the Thirty Years' War.

The kingdom of Prussia has grown out of the little duchy of Brandenburg. The military genius of Frederic the Great raised it high among the powers of Europe.

Aix-la-Chapelle (once Aquis Granum), in German, *Aachen*, a city in Prussian Germany, 39 miles west by south of Cologne. It was the capital of Charlemagne. Two treaties, one in 1668, another in 1748, bear its name.

Alemannia, an ancient duchy, southeast of Alsace, comprising the modern Baden, Würtemberg, and part of Switzerland.

Auerstadt, a town of Prussian Saxony, 20 miles north of Jena. Here the Prussians were defeated in 1806.

Augsburg, a Bavarian town, lying between the Wertach and the Lech, 34 miles west of Munich. Here, in 1530, Melancthon read the Protestant Confession of Faith.

Austrasia, or East Frankland, including chiefly the basin of the Rhine. Its capital, under Charlemagne, was Aix-la-Chapelle.

Bautzen, the capital of Upper Lusatia, near the Spree, 30 miles from Dresden. Here Napoleon defeated the Russians and the Prussians in 1813.

Berg, a duchy in western Germany, along the east bank of the Rhine, south of Cleves. This, with other territories, was given as a grand-duchy to Murat in 1806.

Berlin, the capital of Prussia, on the Spree. It was entered by the Russians and Austrians in 1760, and by Napoleon in 1806. From it he issued his decrees against trade with Britain.

Black Forest, in German, *Schwartz Wald*, a range of mountains east of the Rhine, between Baden and Würtemberg.

Blenheim, a village of west Bavaria, on the Danube, 33 miles northeast of Ulm. Here Marlborough won a brilliant victory over the French in 1704.

Brandenburg, a town on the Havel, 38 miles southwest of Berlin. The electorate of Brandenburg has expanded into the kingdom of Prussia.

Breisach, a town of Baden, on the Rhine, between Strasbourg and Basle. It was ceded to France in 1648, but was afterwards restored to Baden.

Bremen, a free town of Germany, on the Weser, 50 miles from its mouth. It was a leading city of the Hanseatic League.

Breslau, the capital of Silesia, at the junc-

tion of the Ohlau with the Oder, 220 miles southeast of Berlin. It was besieged twice during the Seven Years' War.

Cologne (once Colonia), a city of Rhenish Prussia, 112 miles east of Brussels.

Culm, a strong town of Polish Prussia, on the Vistula.

Czaslau, a town of Bohemia, 42 miles from Prague. Here the great Prussian Frederic defeated the troops of Maria Theresa in 1742.

Dantzic (once Gdansk), a port at the mouth of the Vistula. One of the early leaders of the Hanseatic League.

Dethmold, the capital of Lippe-Dethmold, which lies between Westphalia on the one side, and Hanover and Hesse Cassel on the other.

Dettingen, a village of Bavaria, on the Maine, 16 miles southeast of Frankfort. Here George II. of England, leading his troops in person, defeated the French, in 1743.

Dresden, the capital of Saxony, on the Elbe, 100 miles southeast of Berlin. In August, 1813, Napoleon won a great victory under its walls. It is a great centre of literature and education.

Düttlingen, a town of Suabia, on the Danube, 25 miles northwest of Constance. A battle-field of the Thirty Years' War.

Eckmuhl, a Bavarian village, 52 miles northeast of Munich, where, in 1809, the Archduke Charles was defeated by Napoleon.

Eisenach, a town in Upper Saxony, on the Nesse. Here Luther went to school.

Eisleben, a Saxon town on a hill above the Böse, 16 miles northwest of Halle. The birth-place of Luther.

Eresburg, a fortress of Saxony, taken by Charlemagne.

Eylau, a town of East Prussia, 28 miles south of Königsberg. Here Napoleon defeated the Russians in 1807.

Franconia, a district drained by the Maine and the Rezat. It is now divided into three circles, which form a part of Bavaria.

Frankfort on the Maine, the seat of the German Diet. It was made a free city in 1154. There is another Frankfort, on the Oder.

Friburg, a town of Baden, on the Treisam. There are two other towns of the same name, one in Saxony and one in Switzerland.

Friedland, a town of East Prussia, on the Alle, 28 miles southeast of Königsberg. Noted for a defeat of the Russians by Napoleon, in 1807.

Glatz, a fortified town in Silesia, on the Neisse. Part of the Sudetic range is called the Glatz Mountains.

Halberstadt, a Prussian town in the government of Magdeburg, on a tributary of the Saale. It was united to Prussia by the treaty of Westphalia.

Hamburg, a free city of Germany, on the Elbe, near its mouth. Originally a castle (Hammaburg) built by Charlemagne for defense against the Norsemen. It is now a great centre of commerce.

Heidelberg, a town of Baden, on the Neckar, amid vine-clad hills. It suffered much in the Thirty Years' War and the time of Louis XIV. Here is a celebrated tun, holding 600 hogsheads.

Heilbronn, a town of Suabia, on the Neckar, 20 miles north of Stuttgart.

Hochkirchen, a small Saxon village, 37 miles east of Dresden, where Daun routed the Prussians, in 1758.

Hohenlinden, a Bavarian village, near the Iser, 19 miles east of Munich. It was the scene of a battle in 1800, between the French under Moreau, and the Austrians.

Hubertsberg, a town of Upper Saxony, 22 miles east of Leipsic. Here, in 1763, a peace was signed between Austria and Prussia, closing the Seven Years' War.

Jena, a town of Saxe-Weimar, on the Salle, where Napoleon defeated the Prussians, in 1806.

Konigsberg, a town on the Pregel, near the Baltic, which is a great centre of trade.

Kunersdorf, a village of Brandenburg, on the Oder, near Frankfort, 55 miles southeast of Berlin. Here in 1759, Frederic the Great was defeated by the Russians and Austrians.

Lech, a Bavarian river flowing into the Danube on the right bank. Here Tilly received his mortal wound in 1632.

Leipsic, the second city of Saxony, in a

plain watered by the Pleisse, 72 miles northwest of Dresden. It is famous for Luther's disputation in 1519, the victory of Gustavus Adolphus in 1631, and the defeat of Napoleon in 1813. It is the great book-town of Germany.

Leuthen or Lissa, a Silesian town, 14 miles west of Breslau, noted for the victory of Frederic the Great over the Austrians, in 1757.

Liegnitz, a Silesian town, on the Katsbach, 46 miles west of Breslau, where, in 1760, Frederic beat the Austrian Laudohn.

Lowositz, a Bohemian town, noted for a battle between the Austrians and Prussians in 1756.

Lubeck, a free German town, near the Baltic, between the Trave and the Wakenitz, which was for four centuries a leader of the Hanseatic League.

Lutter, a castle and town of Hanover, southwest of Brunswick, where in 1626 the King of Denmark was defeated by Tilly.

Lutzen, a town of Prussian Saxony, 12 miles southwest of Leipsic. Here Gustavus Adolphus fell in battle, in 1632, and Napoleon defeated the Russians and Prussians in 1813.

Magdeburg, the capital of Prussian Saxony, on the Elbe, 74 miles southwest of Berlin ; remarkable for its terrific sack by Tilly in 1631.

Marburg, the capital of Upper Hesse, on the Lahn, in Hesse Cassel. Here, in 1529, Luther and Zwingle met.

Marienburg, a city on the Nogat, a branch of the Vistula. It was the capital of the Teutonic Order from 1309 to 1466.

Mayence, also called **Mainz** or **Mentz**, a town of Hesse Darmstadt, on the left bank of the Rhine, where the Maine joins it. This, one of the strongest towns in Europe, has long stood as the chief bulwark of Germany against France.

Minden, a town of Westphalia, on the Weser, 35 miles southwest of Hanover ; noted for the defeat of the French in 1759 by Ferdinand of Brunswick.

Mollwitz, a Silesian town, 4 miles west of Brieg, where the Prussians won a victory over Maria Theresa's troops in 1741.

Munich, the capital of Bavaria, on the Iser ; now a great centre of art.

Munster, the capital of Westphalia, on the Ahe, celebrated for its connection with the Anabaptist War, and for the peace signed there in 1648, by which the Thirty Years' War was closed.

Nordlingen, a town of Suabia, on the Eger, 38 miles from Augsburg.

Nuremberg, a Bavarian city, 93 miles northwest of Munich. It was prominent in the struggle of the Reformation.

Palatinate, for a long time an independent electorate, now a part of Bavaria, lying along the Rhine. It suffered much in the Thirty Years' War, and was terribly ravaged by Louis XIV., in 1689.

Philippsburg, a German fortress in the bishopric of Spires, 40 miles northeast of Strasbourg. It was ceded to France in 1648.

Potsdam, a town of Brandenburg, on an island formed by the Spree and the Havel, 13 miles from Berlin.

Rastadt, a town of Baden, on the Murg, 26 miles northeast of Strasbourg, where Prince Eugène and Marshal Villars concluded a treaty in 1714.

Rems, a river of Suabia, beside which was the mountain Hohenstaufen, where the Ghibellines built a castle, from which they got their name.

Rossbach, a town of Prussian Saxony, near the Saale, 20 miles southwest of Leipsic. Here, in 1757, the French were defeated by Frederic the Great.

Rugen, an island in the Baltic, off the Prussian shore, where Gustavus Adolphus landed in 1630.

Sigisburg, a Saxon fortress, taken by Charlemagne.

Silesia, a Prussian province, divided by the Oder. Its capital is Breslau. It was seized by Frederic the Great in 1740, having formerly belonged to Austria.

Smalcald, a town of Upper Saxony, southwest of Erfurt, famous for the Protestant League which was formed in 1531.

Spires, a city of Bavaria, on the west bank of the Rhine, 22 miles south of Worms. Forty-nine Diets have met within its old palace. Of these the most famous was that of 1529, at which the Reformers took the name of Protestants.

Stettin, a port at the mouth of the Oder, which was taken in 1630 by Gustavus Adolphus.

Stralsund, a port on the strait between Rugen and Pomerania. It was besieged without success by Wallenstein during the Thirty Years' War.

Suabia, a district round Augsburg, on the Upper Danube, now one of the circles of Bavaria.

Tannenberg, a battle-field in southern Prussia, where the power of the Teutonic Order was broken in 1410.

Teschen, a town of Upper Silesia, near the source of the Vistula, where, in 1778, a treaty was concluded between the emperor and Frederic the Great.

Thorn, a town on the Vistula, 76 miles south of Dantzic. It was taken by the Swedes in 1703, and retaken by Prussia in 1793.

Thuringia, a district between the Weser and the Saale, which formed a part of Charlemagne's dominion.

Torgau, a strong town on the Elbe, lying in marshy ground, 66 miles southwest of Berlin. Here, in 1760, was fought a battle, in which Frederic the Great was victor.

Weimar, the capital of Saxe-Weimar-Eisenach, on the Ilm. Here Göthe and Schiller lived.

Wismar, a town of Mecklenburg, on the Baltic, 36 miles east of Lubeck. It was ceded to Sweden in 1648.

Wittenberg, a strong town of Saxony, on the Elbe. Luther was a professor in the university here. The university was incorporated with that of Halle, in 1817.

Worms, a German city on the Rhine, 28 miles south of Mayence, famous for Luther's appearance before Charles V., in 1521.

Zorndorf, a village of Brandenburg, 20 miles northeast of Frankfort. Here Frederic the Great defeated the Russians in 1758.

ITALY.

Overrun by Ostrogoths and then by Lombards—annexed to the empire of Charlemagne, and then to that Romano-Germanic state which rose on its ruin—made the seat of the Papacy, once the greatest power in Europe—raised by her brilliant republic cities to a wealth and a fame rivalling those of pagan Rome, mediæval Italy fulfilled a strange and changeful destiny. In modern times her soil has been a battle-field for deciding the quarrels of France and Austria. Her whole story has been one of brilliant misery.

Adda, a river of Lombardy flowing through Lake Como into the Po. On it is the Bridge of Lodi, famous for Napoleon's victory in 1796.

Amalfi, a seaport of the Two Sicilies, on the Gulf of Salerno. A thriving centre of trade in the Middle Ages. Here the Pandects of Justinian were discovered.

Ancona, a city on the bend of the Italian coast, opposite Dalmatia. Now the first seaport in the Papal States.

Aquileia, originally a Roman colony in Venetia, near the head of the Adriatic. It was ruined by Attila in 452. The see of Aquileia was one of the oldest in Italy.

Arcola, a Venetian village on the Alpone, a tributary of the Adige, 15 miles from Verona. Here Napoleon defeated the Austrians in 1796.

Arezzo (once Arretium), a Tuscan town, 3 miles from the Arno, famed as the birthplace of Guido, the musician, and Petrarch, the poet.

Bologna (once Bononia), capital of the Romagna, on the Reno, south of the Po. During the Middle Ages one of the strongest of the Italian republics, and a great supporter of the Lombard League. It was the seat of a famous law school and university.

Campo Formio, a small town of northern Italy, at the head of the Adriatic. It gives its name to the treaty between France and Austria, concluded in 1797.

Canossa, a strong castle belonging to Matilda of Tuscany, on the Appenines near Reggio, where Pope Gregory VII. forced the emperor Henry IV. to lie in the court-yard for three days, bare-foot and in hair-cloth.

Cascioli, a Tuscan mountain, near which, in 1113, the Florentines defeated the Imperial Vicar and his knights.

Elba (once Ilva), a small island of Tuscany, off Piombino, famous as the prison of Napoleon I. from May, 1814, to February, 1815.

Ferrara, a city 4 miles south of the Po, only seven feet above the level of the sea.

Florence, capital of Tuscany, on the Arno. It was a Roman colony founded by Sylla, and became one of the most famous Italian republics; destroyed in 541, by the Goths under Totila. Its most brilliant days were under the Medici. The Tuscans call it *Firenze*.

Gaeta, a port of Italy, 41 miles from Naples and 72 from Rome, where Pio Nono took refuge some years ago.

Genoa, a seaport of northern Italy, on the Mediterranean, 75 miles southeast of Turin. It became a republic after the time of Charlemagne, and was a great rival of Venice, with which it had many wars. In 1174 it owned a great part of northern Italy, part of Provence, and the island of Corsica.

Legnano, a town northwest of Milan, where the citizens of that city defeated Frederic Barbarossa, in 1176.

Lodi.—See *Adda*.

Lombardy, the fruitful plain of northern Italy, deriving its name from the Longobardi, who settled there in 568. Its capital is Milan. The present district of Lombardy (1860), between the Ticino and the Mincio, is a part of the new Italian kingdom.

Loretto, a town in the Papal States, near Ancona, famous for the *Santa Casa*, which is said to be the house of the Virgin, brought by a miracle from Nazareth to Loretto.

Marengo, a village a little way southeast of Alessandria, in Piedmont, famous for the victory of Napoleon over the Austrians, in 1800.

Milan (once Mediolanum), the capital of Lombardy, 80 miles from Turin, in a plain between the Olona and the Lambro. It was an old Gallic town; made a republic in 1221; taken by Louis XII. of France in 1505; by Charles V. of Germany in 1525; taken and retaken many times by French and Austrians; made by Napoleon I. the capital of his kingdom of Italy.

Millesimo, a village 28 miles west of Genoa, where Napoleon won a battle in 1796.

Montenotte, a mountain ridge west of Genoa, near the sea, where Napoleon won a battle in 1796.

Naples (Neapolis), on the beautiful Bay of Naples, the largest city of modern Italy. Long under rule of the Spaniards. Their tyranny kindled a rebellion, headed by Masaniello, a fisherman, in 1647. Joseph Bonaparte was made King of Naples in 1806, followed by Murat in 1808.

Ostia, a most unhealthy town, once the port of Rome, at the mouth of the Tiber. Its chief trade is in salt.

Otranto, a city on the southeast projection of Italy. It was taken by the Turks in 1480; but they were expelled in the following year by the Dukes of Calabria.

Padua (once Patavium), a town near the Bacchiglione, 21 miles from Venice, by which city it was conquered in 1406. Called by the Italians *Padova*.

Pavia, a city on the Ticini, 20 miles south of Milan, noted as the scene of Charles V.'s victory over Francis I. of France in 1525.

Pentapolis, a maritime district of mediæval Italy, so called because it contained the five cities, Rimini, Pesaro, Fano, Sinigaglia, Ancona. It was part of the gift which Pepin le Bref bestowed on Pope Stephen in 753.

Pisa, a Tuscan city on the Arno; a famous republic of the Middle Ages. It was ruined in a struggle with Genoa, and was united to Florence in 1406. Now famous for its leaning bell-tower.

Pistoia, a republic city of Tuscany, subdued in 1254 by Florence.

Placentia, or **Piacenza**, a city of northern Italy, near the junction of the Trebia with the Po, 37 miles southeast of Milan.

Pollentia, an ancient town, of which the ruins are 25 miles southeast of Turin.

Ravenna, a city south of the mouth of the Po. A great marsh grew round it, formed of river mud, and stretching out into the sea. The only way of approach was a narrow causeway miles long. To this city Honorius retired from Rome ; and here Odoacer and Theodoric held the Gothic court. The exarchs of Ravenna held power, as viceroys of the Byzantine Emperor, for two centuries after the time of Narses.

Rivoli, a town on the Adige, where in 1797, Napoleon defeated the Austrians. There is another Rivoli in Piedmont, 10 miles from Turin.

Rome, the capital of Italy, on the Tiber. It was sacked by Alaric the Goth in 410 ; pillaged by the Vandals in 455 ; ruled by Rienzi as tribune in 1347 ; sacked by the troops of Bourbon in 1527 ; besieged and taken by the French under Oudinot in 1849. It is now famous for its ruins and its galleries of art. Its chief modern buildings are St. Peter's and the Vatican.

Salerno, a small state on the Gulf of Salerno, in Naples, which was a fragment of the Lombard Duchy of Benevento. A prince of Salerno first invited the Normans to southern Italy.

Savona, a walled seaport of Sardinia, 30 miles southwest of Genoa.

Simplon, the most easterly *col* or pass of the Pennine Alps.

Spoleto, a city and duchy on the west slope of the Appenines, corresponding to part of ancient Umbria.

St. Bernard, a peak and a pass of the Pennine Alps, by which, in 1800, Napoleon crossed with his army into Italy. The pass runs from Martigny in Switzerland to Aosta in Piedmont.

St. Gothard, the chief pass of the Helvetic or Lepontian Alps, from Altorf in Uri to Bellinzona.

Turin (called in Roman days Augusta Taurinorum), the capital of Piedmont, on the upper course of the Po.

Urbino, a town in the Papal States, 20 miles from the Adriatic. Here, in 1483, Raphael was born.

Venice, on eighty islands at the mouth of the Brenta, founded in 452. It grew in the Middle Ages to be a great centre of trade. Became independent of the Eastern Empire in 997 ; subdued by the League of Cambray in 1508 ; deprived by the Turks of Cyprus and Candia, 1571–1669 ; seized by Bonaparte and handed over to Austria in 1797 ; annexed to the Italian kingdom in 1805 ; transferred to Austria in 1814. Insurrection against Austria in 1848.

Verona, the military capital of Venetia, pleasantly situated on the Adige. It was taken by the Venetians in 1409.

Volterra, a republic city of Tuscany, subdued by Florence in 1254.

THE NETHERLANDS.

At the end of the fourteenth century, the county of Flanders and the duchy of Brabant occupied the land we now call Belgium. Holland was little more than a name on the map of Europe. The land then fell under the Dukes of Burgundy, and so under the house of Austria. Charles V. ruled the Netherlands ; but the northern provinces, revolting from his son, formed the Dutch Republic. The Netherlands, in 1795, were joined to the French Republic. A King of the Netherlands was proclaimed in 1815 ; but in 1830 the Belgians revolted, and have since had a king of their own.

Amsterdam, the capital of Holland, on the Y, an arm of the Zuyder Zee. It is still a great centre of money traffic.

Antwerp, the first seaport of Belgium, on the Scheldt, 45 miles from its mouth ; noted for its capture in 1585 by the Duke

of Parma ; bombarded in 1832 by the French.

Brabant, a district of the central Netherlands, of which part—North Brabant—belongs to Holland, and part—South Brabant—to Belgium. It was long a duchy under the successors of Charlemagne.

Brille, or **Briel**, on the island of Voorn, near the mouth of the Maas. It was seized by the Water Beggars in 1572 ; is remarkable as the birthplace of Van Tromp and De Witt, the admirals.

Bruges, a city of Belgium, the capital of West Flanders, on the Rege. It was once a great centre of the wool trade; and here the Order of the Golden Fleece was instituted, in 1430.

Brussels, the capital of Belgium, on the Senne, a feeder of the Dyle. A revolution took place here in 1830, ending in the separation of Belgium from Holland.

Courtrai (in Flemish *Kortryk*), a town of West Flanders, on the Lys. Here the Flemings, under John, Count of Namur, defeated the French in 1302.

Delft, a town in South Holland, on the Schie, 10 miles northwest of Rotterdam. Here William the Silent was murdered in 1584.

Fontenoy, a village, 4 miles southeast of Tournay, where the French under Saxe beat the British and Austrians under Cumberland in 1745.

Ghent, the capital of East Flanders, where the Scheldt and the Lys meet ; noted as the birthplace of Charles V., in 1500. Here the Pacification of Ghent was signed, in 1576.

Haerlem, in North Holland, on the Spaaren, which falls into the Y 12 miles from Amsterdam ; noted for its brave defense against the Spaniards in 1573.

Jemappes, a village near Mons, where Dumouriez won a victory over the Austrians, in 1792.

Leyden, a town on a branch of the Rhine, 10 miles from the Hague ; noted for its siege by the Spaniards and its relief, in 1574. Its university is much renowned.

Ligny, a Belgian village, 18 miles southeast of Waterloo. Here, on June 16, 1815, Blücher was driven back by Napoleon.

Louvain, a Belgian town on the Dyle. Its university was the cradle of Jansenism.

Mechlin, or **Malines**, on the Dyle. It was sacked by the Spaniards in 1572. Once famous for lace.

Mons, a fortress, 32 miles southwest of Brussels. It fell into the hands of Marlborough in 1709, after his victory at Malplaquet, which is only a league distant.

Namur, a strong fort at the junction of the Sambre and the Meuse, 67 miles southeast of Brussels. It was taken by William III. of England, before the treaty of Ryswick was signed.

Neerwinden, a Belgian village, where the French under Dumouriez were defeated by the Austrians in 1793.

Nimeguen, a Dutch town, on the Waal, where the treaty of 1678 was concluded.

Oudenarde, a Belgian village on the Scheldt, 33 miles west of Brussels, famed as the scene of Marlborough's victory over the French in 1708.

Quatre Bras (four arms, that is, cross roads), a village 10 miles south of Waterloo. Here Ney strove without success to dislodge the British, June 16, 1815.

Ramillies, a Belgian village, 28 miles southeast of Brussels ; noted for Marlborough's victory over Villeroi in 1706.

Ryswick, a town of West Holland, 2 miles southeast of the Hague, where the treaty of 1697 was signed.

Scheldt, the chief river of west Belgium, rising in Aisne in France, and flowing into the North Sea.

Steinkirk, a Belgian town, 16 miles west of Brussels ; noted for the defeat of William III. by Luxemburg in 1692.

Utrecht, a Dutch city, where the Vecht meets the old Rhine, 22 miles southeast of Amsterdam. The Union of Utrecht in 1579 laid the foundation of the Dutch Republic ; and here the treaty of 1713 was concluded, ending the War of the Spanish Succession.

Waterloo, a Belgian village, 9 miles south of Brussels, near the forest of Soignies. The scene of Napoleon's utter defeat by Wellington, June 18, 1815.

RUSSIA AND POLAND.

In the tenth century there was a Duchy of Polonia, which at the time of the Crusades had become the Kingdom of Poland. Gradually the bounds of the kingdom widened, until, in 1385, it absorbed Lithuania, and soon stretched from the Baltic to the Black Sea.

Russia, then filled with broken principalities, of which the largest was Novgorod, was in the hands of Tartar conquerors. Ivan III. drove out these Tartars; and at once Russia began to rise. Meanwhile Poland grew weak with discord. The reign of Peter the Great over Russia made her one of the chief states in Europe; and the old Kingdom of Poland soon felt the evil of having great and unscrupulous neighbors, was torn to pieces, and blotted from the map of Europe.

Alma, a river in the west of the Crimea, north of Sebastopol; noted for the victory of the French and British over the Russians in 1854.

Archangel, a port on the Dwina, in northern Russia, 400 miles northeast of St. Petersburg. It was founded in 1584.

Balaklava, a port in the southwest of the Crimea, about 10 miles from Sebastopol. Near it a battle was fought in 1854, when the famous charge of the Light Cavalry Brigade took place.

Beresina, a western tributary of the Dnieper, where Napoleon's army suffered terribly in their retreat from Moscow.

Borodino, a village on a tributary of the Moskwa, 70 miles southwest of Moscow, where Kutusoff and Napoleon fought in 1812, while the latter was on his way to Moscow.

Courland, a Baltic province of Russia, south of Livonia. Its capital is Mitau. It belonged to Poland until 1795.

Cronstadt, a fortress and island in the Gulf of Finland, 16 miles from the mouth of the Neva, 21 miles west of St. Petersburg. It was founded by Peter the Great in 1710, and is the great naval station of the Baltic.

Ingria, a province south of the Neva and the Gulf of Finland; belonging to Sweden from 1617 until 1700, when it was taken by Russia.

Inkermann, a little east of Sebastopol. The scene of a Russian defeat in the late war, November 5, 1854. There are close by chapels cut out of the freestone rock.

Kiev, a Russian city on the Dnieper, 660 miles south of St. Petersburg. It was the capital of Southern Russia under Ruric—capital of all Russia from 1037 to 1167.

Ladoga, a large lake in northwest Russia, out of which the Neva, 40 miles long, flows to the sea.

Lithuania, a district of Russia round the Niemen. It was long independent; but was united to Poland in 1385, by the marriage of the Queen of Poland with the Prince of Lithuania.

Livonia, a Baltic province of Russia, between Lake Peipus and the Gulf of Riga, which was taken from Sweden by Peter the Great.

Moscow, the old capital and holy city of Russia, on the Moskwa, a tributary of the Volga, 400 miles southeast of St. Petersburg. Here, in 1812, a great fire drove Napoleon to his terrible winter retreat.

Narva, a small Russian town on the Narova, 81 miles southwest of St. Petersburg; famous for a battle in which Charles XII. of Sweden defeated the Czar Peter, in 1700.

Niemen, a river, which forms part of the boundary between Russia and Poland. Its mouth is in Prussia. It is noted for its destructive floods.

Novgorod, a city of Russia on the Wolchow, where it leaves Lake Ilmen, 120 miles south-southeast of St. Petersburg. The seat of Ruric's government in the ninth century.

Ostrolenka, a Polish town, 68 miles northeast of Warsaw, where, in 1831, the Poles were victorious over the Russians.

Peipus, a lake of Livonia, deep enough for small frigates.

Pultowa, a fortified town on the Worskla, an eastern tributary of the Dnieper, where Charles XII. was defeated by Peter the Great, in 1709.

Riga, the capital of Livonia, on the Duna, 5 miles from its mouth. It was taken by Gustavus Adolphus in 1621; but was taken from Sweden by Peter the Great in 1710.

Sebastopol, a great fortress in the southwest of the Crimea; famous for its siege during the late war, 1854–55.

Smolensk, a city on the Dnieper, 230 miles from Moscow; bombarded and set on fire by Napoleon in 1812.

St. Petersburg, the capital of Russia, on the Neva, founded by Peter the Great.

Ukraine, the district of Little Russia, along the Dnieper, comprising four governments — Kiev, Podolia, Pultowa, and Charkov.

Warsaw, the capital of Poland, on the Vistula, 650 miles southwest of St. Petersburg. It was assigned to Prussia in 1795; but in 1815 was made the capital of the kingdom of Poland, which was united to Russia. In 1831 it was the scene of a revolution, which, however, failed.

Wilna, the old capital of Lithuania, where the Wilna and the Wilenka, tributaries of the Niemen, meet. In 1812 Napoleon took it, on his way to Moscow.

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

The Roman province Hispania was divided between the great kingdom of the Visigoths and the smaller one of the Suevi in the northwest. The Saracens invaded the land in 710; and the Visigothic kingdom shrank into Asturias, while the great Emirate of Cordova filled nearly all the peninsular. Then, about 1107, Count Henry, a Burgundian prince, founded the monarchy of Portugal, while three kingdoms—Leon, Castile, and Aragon—grew up in northern and central Spain. Castile and Leon united. Ferdinand of Aragon married, in 1469, Isabella, who soon wore the double crown. Thus arose the monarchy of Spain, which reached its height of glory under Charles I. (Emperor Charles V.), but received a shock under his son, Philip II., from which it has never recovered.

Alhama, a town of Granada, on the Frio, 25 miles southwest of Granada. It was taken from the Moors in 1482.

Alcantara, a city of Estremadura, on the Tagus, nearly 200 miles from Madrid. It means in Moorish "the bridge." It gave its name to an order of knighthood.

Almanza, a town of Murcia, on the borders of Valencia. Here, in 1707, the troops of Louis XIV. defeated the Spaniards and their allies, winning the crown of Spain for Philip V.

Asturias, wooded mountains along the north of Spain, a continuation westward of the Pyrenees. Their northern slope forms the province of Asturias. Here the Visigoths took refuge when driven northward by the Saracens.

Barcelona, a seaport of Catalonia in northeast Spain. Here Columbus visited Ferdinand and Isabella on his return from discovering America. It was taken in 1705 by the Earl of Peterborough.

Baza (once Basti), a town of Granada, taken from the Moors by Ferdinand.

Burgos, the capital of Old Castile, on the Alançon, 117 miles north of Madrid.

Calatrava, a fortress on the Guadiana, which gave its name to one of the three military orders of Spain.

Castile, Old and New, two provinces of central Spain, which formed a kingdom in the Middle Ages.

Cordova (once Corduba), on the Guadalquivir. The centre of the Saracen dominion after 755, when its university, famous in Roman days, revived. It was taken by the Spaniards in 1234.

Gibraltar, the promontory of Calpe, called Djebel Tarik (the mountain of Tarik), after the Saracen leader who landed there in 710. It was taken from Spain by the British in 1704.

Granada, a city on the Darro, a tributary of the Xenil, at the foot of the Sierra Nevada. Here the Moors made their last stand in 1491–92. The Alhambra still stands on a hill by the city.

Loxa, a town of Granada, on the Xenil, which is a tributary of the Guadalquivir.

Madrid, the capital of Spain, on the Manzanares, a tributary of the Tagus. Napoleon entered this city in triumph in 1808.

Malaga, the seaport of Granada, on the Mediterranean. It was taken by Ferdinand in 1487.

Navas de Tolosa, a plain north of Tolosa, on the southern slope of the Sierra Morena, where, in 1212, the Moors were defeated by the kings of Castile and Aragon.

Palos, a small port of Andalusia, from which Columbus set out, August 3, 1492.

Roncevalles, a valley on the Upper Irati, in the Pyrenees, where, in 778, the mountaineers defeated Charlemagne and slew Roland.

Santa Fe, a town built by Ferdinand on the site of his camp during the siege of Granada (1491–92).

Seville, the capital of Andalusia, on the Guadalquiver, 45 miles from the sea; once a great centre of Moorish power.

Trafalgar, a cape in Andalusia, 30 miles from Cadiz. Here Nelson fell in 1805.

Tudela, a city on the Ebro, 110 miles east of Burgos.

Valencia, a city and province in eastern Spain. Here, till 1099, the Cid held his court.

Valladolid, a city of Old Castile, near the Douro, 95 miles northwest of Madrid. Here Columbus died in 1506.

Vigo, a seaport of Galicia, in the northwest of Spain, where Sir George Rooke, with English and Dutch ships, destroyed a French fleet in 1702.

Vimiera, a small town in Portuguese Estremadura, 30 miles northwest of Lisbon, where Junot was defeated in 1808 by Wellesley.

Vittoria, a town in Alava, on the road from Burgos to Bayonne, where, in 1813, the decisive battle of the Peninsular War was fought.

Xeres de la Frontera, a town on the Guadalete, in south Spain, where, in 711, the Saracens overthrew the Visigoths, and killed Roderick, the king of that nation.

Yuste, a monastery in Estremadura, near Plasencia, to which Charles V. retired in 1556.

Zahara, a town of Andalusia, built on a rock, 47 miles southeast of Seville.

Zamora, on the Douro, in Leon, 150 miles northwest of Madrid.

SWEDEN, NORWAY, AND DENMARK.

Sweden, or Svea Rike, was at first the home of a Gothic tribe, Svenskar. Denmark was occupied by another Gothic tribe, Dansker. Norway means North Realm. At first Norway held the greater part of the Scandinavian peninsular, and the Swedes were forced to spread into Finland. Then came the Union of Calmar in 1397, joining the three crowns. Gustavus Vasa, in 1521, freed Sweden from the Danish yoke. The Czar Peter stripped Sweden of most of her possessions in the east of the Baltic. In 1814, Norway was ceded to Sweden by the treaty of Kiel.

Braavalla, a heath in East Gothland, the scene of a battle in 740 between the Danish king, Harold Goldtooth, and his nephew, Sigurd Ring, King of Sweden.

Calmar, a town on the west of Smaaland, opposite the Island of Œland. Here was held a congress of the three northern nations in 1397, when the famous Union of Calmar was signed.

Copenhagen, the capital of Denmark, at the south end of the Sound, on two islands, Zealand and Amager. Here Nelson crippled the Danish fleet in 1801; and Cathcart bombarded the town in 1807. Before 1443 Roeskilde was the capital of Denmark.

Fredericshall, a port of Norway, at the bend of the Skager Rack, 57 miles southeast of Christiania. Here, in 1718, Charles XII. of Sweden was killed.

Gotaland, all the southern part of Sweden, including also the Island of Gothland.

Mælarn, a lake of eastern Sweden, filled with small islands. It is united to the Baltic by a channel.

Stockholm, the capital of Sweden, on the channel from Mælarn to the sea. Counting the windings, it is 36 miles from the Baltic. Upsala was the capital of Sweden until the seventeenth century.

SWITZERLAND.

The central parts of Switzerland formed, about the time of the Crusades, the Duchy of Burgundy the Less. In the fourteenth century, the Forest Cantons arose, shook off the yoke of the Austrian dukes, and formed the Swiss nation. In the time of Napoleon, there were many changes in her Constitution; but in 1815 the number of Cantons was raised to twenty-two, and the independence of the Swiss was secured by treaty.

Aar, a tributary of the Rhine, on its left bank, draining northern and central Switzerland.

Altorf, a town at the southern end of Lake Lucerne, on the Reuss. It is the capital of Uri, and is noted as the scene of Tell's famous shot.

Basle, a Swiss town at the point where the Rhine turns north. It was the seat of a great council from 1431 to 1448.

Cappel, a Swiss battle-field of the Reformation time, where Zwingle was killed, in 1531.

Constance, a town on the southern shore of Lake Constance or Boden See. Here (1414–18) sat the famous Council by whose sentence John Huss and Jerome of Prague were burned.

Einsiedlen, a town in the Canton of Schweitz, 15 miles east of Zug. Here Zwingle lived for some time.

Geneva, a city on the Rhone, where it leaves Lake Leman. The residence of Calvin, and the birth-place of Rousseau.

Glarus, a Swiss town on the Linth; the capital of the Canton of Glarus.

Lucerne, a lake, canton, and town in central Switzerland, famous for their associations with William Tell.

Morgarten, a pass between Schweitz and Zug. The road ran between Mount Sattel and Lake Ægeri. Here the Swiss defeated the Austrians in 1315.

Nefels, a small town of Glarus, where the Austrians were defeated in 1388.

Schweitz, one of the three Forest Cantons (the others are Uri and Underwalden) which has given its name to the whole land. It lies northeast of Lake Lucerne.

Sempach, a village of Lucerne, famous for the battle of 1386, in which Arnold von Winkelried devoted himself for his country.

Underwalden, a Forest Canton, southwest of Lake Lucerne.

Uri, a Forest Canton, south of Lake Lucerne.

TURKEY AND GREECE.

The footing which the Arabs tried in vain to get upon the European shores of the Bosphorus, was won by the Turks in the fifteenth century. They soon overran the whole peninsula; but the Danube, lined by the brave Hungarians, was a barrier they could never pass. Their power has gradually decayed, and is now very slight. Greece, separated from Turkey by a line running from the Gulf of Volo to that of Arta, arose from her bondage in 1821, and bravely won her freedom.

Adrianople, a city of old Thrace, on the Hebrus, now the Maritza, 134 miles northwest from Constantinople; now the second town in Turkey. Here the Goth Fritigern beat the Romans, and Valens was slain, in 378.

Belgrade, capital of Servia, at the junction of the Save with the Danube. A great barrier of eastern Europe against the Turks. Here, in 1456, Hunyades of Transylvania drove the Turks back with great loss.

Bender, now a Russian town on the Dniester, in Bessarabia, 58 miles from the Black Sea. Here Charles XII. took refuge after the battle of Pultowa. It was laid in ashes by the Russians in 1770, and taken by them in 1809.

Byzantium, or **Constantinople**, on the European side of the Bosphorus. It took its name from Byzas, a Thracian chief of the seventh century B.C. It was destroyed by Darius. Here Constantine fixed the capital of the Eastern Empire in 328. The Moslems vainly besieged it. It was taken by the Crusaders in 1204. Famous for its great siege in 1453, when it fell into the hands of the Turks. Called by them *Stamboul* or *Istambol*.

Durazzo (formerly Dyrrachium, capital of Epirus), a town of upper Albania, on a small bay of the Ionian Sea. Scene of a famous battle between the Norsemen and the Byzantine troops, 1081.

Epidaurus, once a celebrated city of the Peloponnesus, on the shore of the Saronic Gulf, in Argolis; now a miserable village of scarce one hundred people. Here the Greeks held a congress in 1822.

Lepanto (formerly Naupactus), in Ætolia, on the north side of the Gulf of Lepanto. Here Don John of Austria destroyed the Turkish fleet in 1571.

Missolonghi, a small town of Ætolia, on the north side of the Gulf of Patras. Here Byron died. It is also famous for its terrible siege in 1826.

Moldavia, a province of Turkey west of the Pruth. It was a part of ancient Dacia, and, with Wallachia, was a source of the Russian war.

Napoli di Romania, the ancient city of Nauplia (Neapolis), lies on a point of land in the east of the Morea, at the head of the Gulf of Argos.

Navarino, on the southwest coast of the Morea, near the old Pylos. Its bay is guarded by the island Sphagia (once Sphacteria). The scene of a great naval battle in 1827.

Nicopolis, a city of Bulgaria, on the Danube. Here, in 1396, Bajazet and his janissaries defeated the Hungarians.

Proconnesus, a little island in the Sea of Marmara, from which the marble was got to build Constantinople.

Sardica, the capital of Dacia Interior. It is still called **Triaditza**, and was the scene of an ecclesiastical council in the days of Constantine.

Scio (once Chios), an island off the west coast of Asia Minor. Remarkable for the beauty of its scenery. Terribly ravaged by the Turks in 1822.

Thessalonica (now **Saloniki**), at the head of the gulf once called Thermaic, now Salonic. Here Paul preached, and to the people of the city he wrote two epistles.

Wallachia, a province of Turkey, along the northern bank of the Danube. A part of ancient Dacia.—See *Moldavia*.

ASIA.

Asia was the cradle of the human race. Europe has been the home of its ripe manhood, and the scene of its greatest achievements. The great mountain-wall of Imaus (the modern Beloor-tagh and Soliman ranges) has kept the Mongols to the east of Asia with their imperfect civilization; but west of Imaus there has been much change since the fall of Rome. Mahometanism sprang up in Arabia and spread beyond the Indus. The Turks pushed their way from the Caspian through Asia Minor into Europe; and in Palestine the great Crusades brought West and East into closer contact. In later times the occupation of India by the British has been the greatest event of Asiatic history.

Acre, or **Ptolemais**, a strong fortress on the northern point of the only considerable bay in Palestine, famous for its siege in the Third Crusade. It was taken from the Christians in 1291 by Sultan Khalil, and was unsuccessfully attacked by Napoleon I., in 1799.

Ailah, or **Akabah**, a fortress on the north-east prong of the Red Sea. Its conquest by the Moslems opened their way to Mount Sinai and Africa.

Angora (formerly Ancyra), a chief city of northern Galatia, where, in 1402, Bajazet was defeated by Tamerlane.

Antioch, a large city in northern Syria, on the Orontes, which was besieged and taken by the First Crusaders. It is now called **Andakieh**. There was another Antioch in Pisidia, in Asia Minor.

Ascalon, a fortress on the shore of Palestine, which was the scene of many battles during the first three Crusades. It was destroyed by Saladin in 1191.

Bagdad, a city on the west bank of the Tigris, founded in 765 by the Caliph El Mansur. This brilliant capital of the Abbasides was destroyed by the Mongols in 1258.

Bassora, a city on the Euphrates, near its mouth. It was founded by Omar, and became a great centre of Moslem commerce.

Beder, a valley southwest of Medina, where Mahomet won his first victory, defeating his enemies of the tribe Koreish.

Berytus (now **Beirout**), one of the capital cities of maritime Phœnicia, where there was a famous Roman law-school. The city was taken by the knights of the Fourth Crusade.

Bithynia, a province of Asia Minor, lying partly on the Propontis, or Sea of Marmara, and partly on the Euxine, or Black Sea. It was the scene of the third persecution of Christians under Pliny the younger.

Brusa (formerly Prusa), a city of Bithynia, near the Euxine. It was taken by the Turkish Sultan Orchan, in 1326.

Cæsarea, an old Roman town on the coast of Palestine, thirty miles southwest of Acre. Here Peter visited Cornelius, and Paul addressed Felix and Agrippa. It was taken by the Saracens in 635, and by the Crusaders in 1101.

Chaibar, the Jewish capital of northern Arabia, where, after taking the town, Mahomet was nearly killed by eating poisoned food.

Chalcedon, a city of Bithynia, on the Bosphorus, where the Fourth General Council met in 451.

Chios, an island off the west coast of Asia Minor, now called **Scio**.

Chrysopolis (now **Scutari**), a town opposite Constantinople, on the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus. Here Constantine defeated Licinius in 324.

Cufa, a city on the western bank of the Euphrates, which was for a time the capital of the Caliphs. Here Ali was assassinated in 651.

Dorylæum, a city of Phrygia in Asia Minor, on the river Thymbris. It was the scene of a great cavalry battle in the First Crusade in 1097.

Edessa (now **Orfah**), the capital of Mesopotamia. It was famous in the Middle Ages for the manufacture of shields and armor.

Heraclea, a city of Asia Minor, on the shore of the Euxine. It was laid in ruins by Haroun al Raschid. There was another Heraclea (Erekli) on the Thracian Chersonese.

Honein, a valley north of Mecca, where Mahomet defeated the Arabian idolaters.

Iconium (now **Konieh**), the capital of Lycaonia, in Asia Minor. It was taken by Frederic Barbarossa during the Third Crusade.

Jerusalem, the chief city of Palestine, built upon four hills. It was besieged by the Romans, A.D. 70; surrendered to the Caliph Omar, 637; taken by the Crusaders, 1099; taken by the Turks, 1239. Its present population is about 10,000, of whom two-thirds are Mahometans.

Kadesia, a battle-field some distance west of the Euphrates, where, during the caliphate of Omar, the Moslems and the Persians fought for three days. The Persians were beaten.

Madayn, consisting of two towns, Ctesiphon and Seleucia, opposite each other, on the Tigris. This capital of the Persian kingdom fell before the troops of Omar, and Bagdad was afterwards built from its ruins.

Mecca, the capital of Arabia, in a sandy valley fifty-five miles from the east shore of the Red Sea. Here Mahomet was born in 571. It was re-entered by the banished prophet in 629.

Medina, a city of western Arabia, 270 miles north of Mecca. Hither Mahomet fled in 622, and here he was buried.

Muta, a battle-field a little east of the Dead Sea, where the Moslems and the troops of the Eastern Empire met in conflict for the first time.

Nehavend, a town half way between the Caspian Sea and the Persian Gulf. It was the scene of the last great defeat of the Persians by the Moslem troops.

Nice, or **Nicæa** (now **Isnik**), a great city of Bithynia, where the First General Council met in 325. It was taken by the Crusaders in 1097.

Nicomedia (now **Nikmid**), a city of Bithynia, on the Gulf of Astacus. It was the capital of the East under Diocletian, and the scene of the last great Christian persecution in 303. There Constantine died. It was noted in the story of the Crusades.

Palmyra, or **Tadmor**, a city built in an oasis of the Syrian desert, half way between the Orontes and the Euphrates. It was taken by Aurelian in 273, and its queen, Zenobia, was led in triumph through Rome.

Rhodes, an island off the southwest coast of Asia Minor, which was attacked without success by Mahomet II.

Samarcand, a city of Turkestan. It was conquered by the Moslems, and then by the Mongols, when it became the capital of Tamerlane.

Smyrna, a large commercial city on the west shore of Asia Minor. It was the scene of the fifth Christian persecution, during which the bishop, Polycarp, suffered martyrdom.

Tabuk, a palm grove half way between Medina and Damascus, at which Mahomet fell sick and turned back to die.

AFRICA.

The spread of the Moslems along the shores of Barbary, and the events of the later Crusades, are the chief points of interest in the history of Africa during the Middle Ages. In modern times the name of this continent has become sadly associated with the unnatural horrors of negro slavery.

Aboukir, a bay at the western mouth of the Nile. It was the scene of Nelson's victory over the French fleet, in August, 1798.

Alexandria, a city 14 miles from the most westerly mouth of the Nile, built partly on the promontory of Pharos. It was, in Vespasian's time, the second Roman city, and is now the great port of Egypt.

Algiers, a country of north Africa, corresponding to the old Numidia. It was taken by the Vandals, who were expelled by Belisarius in 534. The city was unsuccessfully attacked by Charles V. in 1541; bombarded by the English in 1816; and conquered by the French in 1830.

Cairouan, a city of northern Africa, founded by the Moslems in 674. It became a great centre of commerce during the Middle Ages.

Damietta, a seaport at the eastern mouth of the Nile, taken by St. Louis during the Seventh Crusade.

Hippo Regius (Bona), a strong city of the Numidian coast, where St. Augustine lived and died. It was besieged by the Vandals in 430.

Mekines, a Moslem kingdom in northern Africa, corresponding to the old Mauretania. and to part of the modern Morocco and Algiers.

St. Helena, a rocky island in the South Atlantic, belonging to Great Britain. It is famous as the prison of Napoleon from 1815 until his death in 1821.

Tangier (formerly Tingis), the capital of Mauretania Tingitana, on the southern shore of the Strait of Gibraltar.

Tunis, a city 3 miles southwest from the ruins of Carthage. It was taken in 1535 by Charles V., when 10,000 Christian slaves were set free. Goletta was its great port.

AMERICA.

America is said to have been known to the Icelanders about 1000 A.D., but it was only after 1492 that the New World began to figure in history. Spain became the possessor of nearly all South America and a large part of the Northern continent; but the various States have since risen and won their independence. The greatest event in American history is the acknowledgment of the independence of the United States by Britain in 1783. The republic then founded has grown to be one of the greatest Powers in the world.

Caxamarca, a city of old Peru, where Pizarro massacred the guards of the Inca.

Cuzco, a plateau and town in southern Peru, more than 11,000 feet above the sea. It was taken by Pizarro.

Hispaniola, also called St. Domingo or Hayti, one of the larger Antilles, discovered and colonized by Columbus in 1493. He ruled it for Spain until superseded by Bobadilla. It is now independent, under a negro emperor.

Lima, the capital of Peru, 6 miles from the Pacific. Callao is its port. It was founded by Pizarro, in 1535.

Mexico, a great city on the plateau of Anahuac. It was taken for Spain by Cortez in 1521, but it declared its independence in 1821.

Otumba, a valley near Mexico, where the natives were defeated by Cortez in 1520.

Panama, a town on the Pacific shore of the Isthmus of Darien or Panama. Pizarro sailed from it in 1531, bound for Peru. The traffic to California now passes through it.

San Salvador, or **Guanahani**, one of the Bahama Islands. The first American land seen by Columbus, who landed there October 12, 1492.

Vera Cruz, a port on the southwest shore of the Gulf of Mexico, founded by Cortez, who there broke up his ships.

Albany, capital of the State of New York, on the west bank of the Hudson, 144 miles from its mouth.

Antietam, a small stream, rises in Pennsylvania, flows south through Maryland, into the Potomac; on its banks an important battle was fought in the Rebellion.

Atlanta, a city in the northern part of Georgia; important centre of operations during the Rebellion.

Baltimore, a large commercial city, on an arm of Chesapeake Bay, in Maryland.

Boston, a large commercial city, capital of Massachusetts, and situated at the western extremity of Massachusetts Bay.

Brooklyn, a city on the western extremity of Long Island, opposite the city of New York.

Chancellorsville, a post-village in Virginia, 76 miles from Richmond. Here the Union army was defeated, May 2 and 3, 1863.

Chattanooga, a post-village in Tennesee, on the Tennessee River, taken by the Union army, September 9, 1863.

Chickamauga Creek, rises in Walker county, Georgia, and enters the Tennessee River near Chattanooga. A battle was fought here on the 19th September, 1863.

Dorchester Heights, a town in Massachusetts, on Boston Bay, 4 miles southeast from Boston.

Fredericksburg, a town in Virginia, on the right bank of the Rappahannock River, 65 miles north of Richmond. The Union troops having attacked the Confederate fortifications near this place, were repulsed, December 13, 1862.

Gordonsville, a post-village of Virginia, 70 miles north of Richmond.

Halifax, a city and sea-port, capital of the colony of Nova Scotia. Halifax is the principal naval station for the North American colonies, and is defended by strong forts and batteries.

Harlem, a suburb of New York City, on the north part of Manhattan Island.

Montgomery, a flourishing city, and capital of Alabama, on the left bank of the Alabama River.

Montreal, a city of British America, recently the capital of Canada East, on the south side of the island of Montreal, in the St. Lawrence River.

Monmouth Court House, now Freehold, New Jersey; capital of Monmouth county. The battle of Monmouth was fought here, June 28, 1778.

Nashville, a flourishing city—capital of the State of Tennessee—on the Cumberland River. Nashville was taken by the Union army about February 24, 1862. Here General Thomas gained a victory over the Rebel General Hood, 15th and 16th December, 1864.

New Orleans, a city of Louisiana, situated on the left bank of the Mississippi river, 1663 miles southwest of New York.

New York, the most populous city of the New World, and the greatest emporium, situated at the mouth of the Hudson River, 25 miles from the sea.

Philadelphia, the second city in the United States, and the metropolis of Pennsylvania, situated between the Delaware and Schuylkill Rivers, 100 miles from the sea.

Quebec, a city and port of Canada East, on the St. Lawrence River. Taken by the English in 1629, restored to the French in 1632, and again captured by the English in 1759, to whom it was ceded in 1763.

Richmond, capital of Virginia, situated on the left or northeast bank of the James River. It was taken by the Union army after a long and obstinate defense, April 2, 1865.

Savannah, a flourishing city of Georgia, on the Savannah River. This city was captured from the Rebels by General Sherman about December 20, 1864.

Shenandoah Valley, extending along the left base of the Blue Ridge, in Virginia.

St. Johns, important post-town in Canada East, on the River Richelieu, 27 miles southeast of Montreal. Was taken by the American forces in 1776.

Trenton, capital of New Jersey, situated on the left bank of the Delaware, about 30 miles from Philadelphia and 57 from New York. The battle of Trenton was fought here, December 26, 1777.

Vicksburg, a city in Mississippi. This city was captured from the Rebels after a long siege, by General Grant, July 4, 1863.

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